
T H E

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LIFE OF CHARLES EDWARD STUART.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

CHARLES EDWARD STUART, son of James Stuart, commonly called the Chevalier de St. George, and the Princess Clementina, daughter of the celebrated John Sobieski, King of Poland, was born at Rome, on the 20th of December, 1720. When he had attained to the age of seven, he was placed under the care of an Irish gentleman, of the name of Sheridan, a person well qualified for such an important trust, and a Roman Catholic, in preference to Mr. Leslie, a nonjuror, and a member of the church of England, who was proposed by his father. As he advanced in years, he shewed an unusual vivacity of spirit, and seemed to manifest in no small degree a genius formed for military exploits. When he was about the age of fourteen, he paid a visit to Don Carlos, who, by the assistance of a British Squadron, under the command of Sir Charles Wager, was advanced to the Crown of the Two Sicilies, and in the year 1734 he was present at the siege of Gaeta, where

he behaved so well, though only a youth, as fully justified the high opinion formed of his courage and intrepidity. Being a volunteer under the Duke of Berwick, natural son of James II. who was appointed General of the French forces against those of the empire, in this situation, his conduct gave so much satisfaction to the Marshal, that in his letters to the French ministers, he bestowed the highest encomiums on his military talents and abilities. On this account the King ordered the Duke to appoint him to be an officer, and to give him a command in the army; and he continued with the Marshal till he was killed by a cannon ball, at the siege of Phillipsburgh, as he was reconnoitring a battery of the enemy, which was then playing on his camp.

Peace being concluded in 1735, between France and the empire, he returned to Rome; but he had again an opportunity of signalizing himself, by the war which broke out upon the election

election of a new Emperor, in the room of Charles VI. By the influence of France the Duke of Bavaria was raised to that high dignity, and the House of Austria was in considerable danger of losing the Imperial Throne, which would have enabled France to give law to all Europe. To prevent this event, the maritime powers and other allies of the Queen of Hungary hastened to her relief, and the French, in a little time, were obliged to quit Germany, and the Imperial Crown was placed on the head of the Duke of Lorraine, her Majesty's Consort. The King of Great Britain, George II. who was embarked in this cause, headed an army in person, and on the 16th of June, 1743, fought a battle with the Duke de Noailles on the banks of the Mayne, near the village of Dettingen. Charles, who was in the Duke's army, had a share in this engagement; and he rendered himself very conspicuous by his bravery, being one of the foremost in charging the enemy, and among the last who retreated.

When the campaign was finished he returned to Rome; and during the winter a project was formed of recovering for him the British Throne, which had been lost by the bigotry and superstition of his grandfather, James II. The plan of this attempt was laid at the Court of Versailles, and great preparations were made for it. A large fleet of men of war was stationed in the harbour of Brest; a vast number of transports were collected in the ports of Calais and Dunkirk; and a considerable army was quartered in the towns and villages on the sea coast, ready to embark for England on the shortest notice.

In the mean time, orders were sent to the French Resident at Rome to hasten Charles' departure; upon which several councils were held in the presence of his father, the Chevalier de St. George, and, after mature deliberation, it was agreed that, in order to prevent suspicion, he should set out with all possible secrecy. After some time it was observed, that Charles did not attend

the audiences given by his father as usual, and those who, from motives of curiosity, enquired the reason of this sudden disappearance, were sometimes told that he was ill of a cold, and at other times that he was gone into the country. At length, however, after various surmises and conjectures, the public were informed of the real truth. Lord Dunbar, who was High Steward of the Chevalier's Household, having on the 19th of January, 1744, obtained an audience of the Pope, acquainted his Holiness, that the Chevalier's eldest son had set out incognito for France, where he was safely arrived, in order to make a campaign in the army of the Infant Don Philip. The Pope told his Lordship, that this information gave him great pleasure; and for some days following there was a great concourse of Cardinals and Noblemen at the Chevalier's palace, to congratulate him on this occasion.

When Charles arrived at Genoa, he procured a passport from Admiral Mathews, under the name of a Cardinal's Secretary; and embarking in an English ship, landed at Antibes, a sea-port town in Provence; but instead of joining Don Philip's army, as had been given out, to conceal his real design, he immediately repaired to Paris, where he was greatly caressed by the French Ministry, and told of the vast preparations making in France to assist him to recover the British Crown.

In the mean time, the British Court having got intelligence of these preparations, a proclamation was issued for putting the laws in force against Papists and Nonjurors; and the King acquainted the Parliament of the accounts he had received of the Pretender's intention to invade England; upon which both Houses promised to stand by him with their lives and fortunes, and passed an act making it high treason for the Pretender, or any of his sons, to land in Britain. Addresses to the same purpose were sent up from the great trading towns and boroughs in the kingdom; and Mr. Thompson, the English Resident at Paris,

Paris, was ordered to remonstrate concerning Charles being in Paris, and to demand that he might be obliged to quit the French dominions, pursuant to treaties subsisting between the two Crowns.

To this remonstrance Mr. Amelot replied, that "engagements entered into by treaties were not binding any farther than while these treaties were religiously observed by all parties concerned; that when the King of England should cause satisfaction to be given respecting repeated complaints made to him of the infraction of the treaties alluded to, his Most Christian Majesty would explain himself on the demand then made by Mr. Thompson, in the name of his Britannic Majesty." Mr. Trevor, Minister from the British Court at the Hague, was ordered to demand of the States General 6000 troops, which by treaty they were obliged to furnish in case of an emergency; in consequence of which they were immediately sent over, and arrived in the month of March.

Count Saxe, who was to command the French troops prepared for Charles' assistance, perceiving what a powerful opposition he was likely to meet with, began to think that the execution of his design was impracticable; and on this account he wrote to Court, to inform the King what dangers and difficulties would attend the prosecution of the proposed invasion, and to request that it might be deferred till a more favorable opportunity. The reasons he alledged had so much weight, that the French Ministry thought proper to drop their design for the present, to recal their forces from the sea coasts, and to employ them in Flanders, where the army was to act in the ensuing campaign. Count Saxe and the rest of the General Officers, attended by Charles, set out, therefore, from Paris; and much about the same time, in the month of March 1744, the French declared war against England.

Charles being ambitious of learning the art of war under so expert and accomplished a General as Count Saxe, had accompanied him into Flanders, where he was present at the sieges of Menin, Ypres, and Furnes, each of which was taken in three days; but as there was no battle, or general engagement, during the whole summer, Charles had no opportunity of signalizing his valor in the open field. The campaign being ended, he returned to the French Court, where he spent his time in consulting with his friends on the state of his affairs with respect to Scotland.

Early in the spring the armies took the field, and Charles resumed his former station under Count Saxe. The French having invested the fortrefs of Tournay, the allied army, headed by the Duke of Cumberland, hastened to its relief, and a battle was soon after fought at Fontenoy, in which the French proved victorious. In the fortune of this engagement Charles had a considerable share, as he commanded those troops that supported the masked battery of Antoine, which did such execution among the English infantry, as obliged them to retire when victory was on the point of declaring in their favor. For this service the King thanked him in person, and gave him besides a very handsome present.

Soon after this battle Charles repaired to Paris, where the plan of his future operations was projected, and finally settled. He then set out in company with a few of his friends for Port Lazare, in Brittany, where a frigate, mounting eighteen guns, was ready to receive him. Having got under sail, they proceeded towards Belleisle, where they met the Elizabeth, a ship of sixty guns, which had a considerable quantity of money on board, with arms for several thousands of men, designed for Charles' use, as soon as he should land in Scotland. In their passage, thirty-nine leagues west of the Lizard, they were attacked by the Lion man of war, of fifty-six guns, commanded by Captain

Brett, and a severe action ensued for five hours, during which the *Lion* sustained so much damage in her rigging and masts, that she was almost reduced to a wreck, while the *Elizabeth*, which was unable to maintain the contest any longer, took advantage of the night, and made for Brest, where she arrived in a most wretched condition. The frigate bore away, soon after the fight began, for the north-west coast of Scotland, and having hovered about the isles for some days, at length put into a creek or small harbour in the county of Lochbar.

The persons who had accompanied Charles from France, and who landed with him, were the Marquis of Tullibardine, eldest brother to the Duke of Athol, attainted in 1715; old Cameron of Lochiel; General McDonald, a Lieutenant Colonel in the Irish brigades; Sir Thomas Sheridan, an Irish gentleman; Colonel O'Sullivan, who had formerly been a priest, and tutor to the son of Marshal Maillebois; Mr. Kelly, who was many years a prisoner in the Tower of London, on account of the affair of the Bishop of Rochester; and Mr. Mitchel, an old servant of the Chevalier de St. George, who had such an affection for his son that he attended him in this expedition. Charles brought with him seven hundred stands of arms, a considerable quantity of ammunition, and twenty five thousand pounds, which his father had borrowed on his jewels, knowing that his son would have occasion for money on his landing, to distribute among the clans, and to make them more readily support him in his intended project.

The Regency of England, (for the King was then at Hanover,) being informed that Charles was about to make a descent in Scotland, issued a proclamation, promising a reward of 30,000*l.* to any person who should seize and secure, the eldest son of the Pretender, in case he might land or attempt to land in any of his Majesty's dominions. Charles also issued a proclamation of the like nature, offer-

ing the same reward, to seize and secure King George, whom he called an usurper.

As soon as Charles landed, he went to the house of Mr. McDonald, of Kinloch Moidart, from which he wrote letters to the adjacent clans, to acquaint them of his arrival. Upon this Cameron of Lochiel went to wait upon him, but he refused to arm his clan, until Charles could produce in writing, the resolution of the King of France, to assist and support him with a proper number of forces. Being satisfied on this point, he summoned his clan, and erected Charles' standard with this motto, *Tandem Triumphans*: triumphing at last.

When the news of Charles' arrival was spread abroad, the chiefs who had been previously informed of it, and who concurred in his scheme, soon repaired to his standard. When he had got a sufficient number to make the appearance of an army, he marched with them to within a mile of Fort William, and there encamped. Having increased his forces to the number of about two thousand, he marched forward to a hill, about six miles distant from Fort Augustus, and being informed that General Cope was coming to attack him, he waited with a resolution of hazarding an engagement; but the General, either distrusting his own strength, or for some other reason, proceeded to Aberdeen, where he embarked his army on board some ships, which transported it to Dunbar, where he landed.

On the 30th of August Charles arrived at Blair, the residence of the Duke of Athol, upon which that nobleman and several gentlemen of the county of Fife retired to Edinburgh. After this he proceeded to Perth, Dumblain, and Stirling, and on the 16th of September encamped with his army at Gray's Mill, about two miles from Edinburgh, where some of the magistrates waited on him to treat concerning a capitulation. In the mean time one of the gates being opened for the admission of a coach, Cameron of Lochiel rushed into the place

place with a party of his men, and secured it without opposition. Next morning the whole army entered, Charles took possession of the royal palace of Holyrood house, and having caused his father to be proclaimed at the market cross, ordered a manifesto to be read, in which the Chevalier declared his son Regent of his dominions, and promised to redress all the grievances of Scotland.

During these transactions, Sir John Cope began his march towards Edinburgh to give the rebel army battle, and on the twentieth of the month encamped in the neighbourhood of Preston Pans with all his troops, amounting to nearly three thousand men. Early next morning he was attacked by Charles, at the head of about the same number of Highlanders, who charged, sword in hand, with such impetuosity, that in less than ten minutes the King's troops were broken and totally routed. The dragoons fled in the utmost confusion, and the General officers, after some unsuccessful efforts to rally their men, retreated towards Coldstream on the Tweed. Never was a victory perhaps obtained at a smaller expence: *only fifty of the rebels lost their lives*, while five hundred of the opposite party were killed on the spot, and among these the brave Colonel Gardiner, who fell greatly lamented.

Charles' followers encreasing every day, and several of the Highland chiefs, encouraged by his success, beginning to exert themselves in his cause, he resolved to make an irruption into England, which he did on the sixth of November, having by that time collected an army of about five thousand men. Carlisle was the first place he invested, which surrendered in less than three days, and here his father was proclaimed King of Great Britain, and himself Regent, by the magistrates, in all their formalities. General Wade being informed of his progress, advanced across the country as far as Hexham, but receiving intelligence there that Carlisle was reduced, he returned to

his former station. Orders were issued for assembling another army in Staffordshire, under the command of Sir John Ligonier; but Charles, notwithstanding this opposition, determined to proceed. Leaving therefore a small garrison in Carlisle, he advanced to Penrith, marching on foot in the Highland dress, and continued his route through Lancaster and Preston, to Manchester, where on the twenty-ninth of the month he established his head quarters, and was joined by about two hundred Englishmen, who were formed into a regiment, under Colonel Townly. His supposed intention was to pursue his way through Chester to Wales, where he hoped to find a great number of adherents; but all the bridges on the river Mersey being broken down, he chose the route to Stockport, and forded the river at the head of his division, though the water rose to his middle. Taking Macclesfield and Congleton in his way, on the fourth of December he entered the town of Derby, where his father was proclaimed with great solemnity. He had now advanced within one hundred miles of the capital, which was filled with consternation, and had he proceeded might have made himself master of it, and been joined by a considerable number of his friends, who impatiently waited for his approach.

Though success had hitherto attended him, Charles however found himself miserably disappointed in his expectations. He was now in the heart of England, and, except a few that joined him at Manchester, not a soul appeared in his behalf. The Welch took no step to excite any insurrection in his favor; the French made no attempt towards an invasion; the Highland chiefs began to murmur, and he saw himself with a handful of men hemmed in between two considerable armies, in the middle of winter, and in a country disaffected to his cause. He could scarcely hope to proceed to the metropolis without hazarding a battle, and a defeat would have
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been attended with inevitable ruin, both to himself and his followers. Besides this, he had received information, that his friends and officers had assembled a body of forces in the northern parts, superior in number to those by whom he was attended.

Having called a council at Derby, and proposed to advance towards London, this plan was very strongly supported by Lord Nairn; but after violent disputes, the majority determined that they should return to Scotland with all possible expedition.—They abandoned Derby, therefore, on the 6th of December, early in the morning, and retreated the same way by which they had advanced. On the 9th, their vanguard reached Manchester, and entering Preston on the 12th, they continued their march northwards. The Duke of Cumberland, who was encamped at Meriden, when informed of their return, detached some horse and dragoons in pursuit of them, while General Wade began his march from Ferrybridge into Lancashire, with a view of intercepting them in their way; but at Wakefield he understood they had already reached Wigan: he therefore repaired to his old post at Newcastle, after detaching General Oglethorpe, with his horse and dragoons, to join those that had been sent off from the Duke's army. They pursued with much alacrity, and having overtaken the rear of the rebel army, had a few skirmishes in Lancashire. Though the militia of Cumberland and Westmoreland were raised and armed, by the Duke's order, to harass them on their march, and though the bridges were broken down, the roads damaged, and the beacons lighted to alarm the country, they retreated very regularly with their small train of artillery. On the 19th day of the month the Highland army reached Carlisle, where the majority of the English in it were left at their own desire, after which Charles re-inforced the garrison of the place, and crossed the rivers Eden and Solway into Scotland; having thus accomplished one of the most surprising retreats, perhaps, ever

performed. But the most singular circumstance attending this expedition was, the moderation and regularity with which these ferocious people conducted themselves while in the centre of a rich and plentiful country. They committed no violence or outrage, and they were effectually restrained from the exercise of rapine. Though the weather was excessively cold, and though they must have been exposed to much hunger and fatigue, they left no sick, and lost only a few stragglers, but retired in good order, carrying off their cannon in the face of the enemy. The Duke of Cumberland invested Carlisle with his whole army, on the 21st day of December; and on the 13th, the whole garrison surrendered by a kind of capitulation with the Duke of Richmond. The prisoners, amounting to about four hundred, were confined in different goals in England, and the Duke returned to London.

Charles proceeded by the way of Dumfries to Glasgow, from which last city he exacted severe contributions on account of its attachment to government. Having continued several days at Glasgow, he advanced towards Stirling, and was joined by some forces which had been assembled in his absence by Lords Lewis Gordon, and John Drummond, brothers to the Dukes of Gordon and Perth. This last nobleman had arrived from France in November, with a small re-inforcement of French and Irish, and a commission as General of these auxiliaries. He fixed his head quarters at Perth, where he was re-inforced by the Earl of Cromartie, and other clans, to the number of two thousand, and he was supplied with a small train of artillery. Having found means to surprise a sloop of war at Montrose, they fortified that harbour with the guns, and they had received a considerable sum of money from Spain. They likewise took possession of Dundee, Dumblaine, Downcattle, and laid Fife under contribution. The Earl of Loudoun, who remained at Inverness, with about two thousand

and Highlanders, in the service of his Majesty, conveyed provisions to Fort Augustus and Fort William, and secured the person of Lord Lovat; but this cunning veteran found means to escape. Charles being joined by Lord John Drummond, invested the castle of Stirling, in which General Blakeney commanded; but his people being not much used to enterprises of this kind, they made very little progress in their operations.

By this time a considerable body of forces was assembled at Edinburgh, under General Hawley, who determined to relieve Stirling castle, and advanced to Linlithgow on the thirteenth of January. Next day his whole army rendezvoused at Falkirk, while the rebels were cantoned at Bannockburn. On the seventeenth day of the month they began their march in two columns to attack the King's forces, and had forded the water of Cawen within three miles of Hawley's camp, before he discovered their intention; but such was his obstinacy or contempt of the enemy, that he paid no attention to the repeated intelligence he received of their motions, being firmly persuaded that they would not venture to hazard an engagement. Perceiving, however, that they had got possession of a rising ground to the southward of Falkirk, he ordered his cavalry to advance, and drive the enemy from their post, while he formed his infantry in the order of battle.

The Highlanders, in the mean time, kept up so close a fire, and took so good aim, that the assailants being soon broken, retreated with precipitation, and fell in amongst the infantry, who were likewise incommoded by the wind and the rain beating with great violence in their faces. Some of the dragoons rallied, and again advanced to the charge with part of the infantry, which had not been engaged; upon which Charles marched up at the head of his corps de reserve, consisting of the regiment of Lord John Drummond, and the Irish piquets. These joining the Camerons and the

Stuarts in the front line, immediately obliged the dragoons to give way a second time, and they again disordered the foot in their retreat, so that the King's troops, at length, set fire to their camp, and abandoned Falkirk with their baggage and artillery; the last of which never reached the field of battle. The rebels followed their first blow, and great part of the royal army, after one irregular discharge, turned their backs, and fled in the utmost consternation. Few or none of them, perhaps, would have escaped, had not General Huske and Brigadier Cholmondeley rallied part of some regiments, and made a gallant resistance for a little time, which favored the retreat of the rest to Falkirk, whence they retired in confusion to Edinburgh.

It was now judged necessary by the King's Ministers that the army in Scotland should be commanded by a General in whom the soldiers could confide; and the Duke of Cumberland was chosen for this purpose. Besides being universally beloved by the troops, it was suggested that the appearance of a Prince of the Blood in Scotland, might have a favorable effect on the minds of the people in that kingdom: he therefore began to make preparations for his northern expedition. In the mean while, the French Minister at the Hague having represented to the States General that the auxiliaries they had sent into Great Britain were part of the garrisons of Tournay and Dendermonde, and restricted by the capitulation from bearing arms against France for a certain period, the States thought proper to recal them, rather than come to an open rupture with his Most Christian Majesty. In the room of these troops, six thousand Hessians were transported from Flanders to Leith, where they arrived in the beginning of February, under the command of their Prince Frederic of Hesse, son-in-law to his Britannic Majesty. By this time the Duke of Cumberland had put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, consisting of fourteen bat-

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lions of infantry, two regiments of dragoons, and twelve of Highlanders, from Argyleshire, under the command of Colonel Campbell. On the last day of January, his Royal Highness began his march to Linlithgow, and the enemy, who had renewed the siege of Stirling Castle, not only abandoned that enterprise, but crossed the river Forth with precipitation, while Charles found great difficulty in maintaining his troops, as that part of the country was quite exhausted. Hoping, however, to be reinforced in the Highlands, and to receive supplies of all kinds from France and Spain, he retired by Badenoch towards Inverness, which the Earl of Loudoun abandoned on his approach. The fort surrendered to him almost without opposition, and here he fixed his head quarters. The Duke of Cumberland having secured the important posts of Stirling and Perth with the Hessian battalions, advanced with his army to Aberdeen, where he was joined by the Duke of Gordon, and other persons of distinction. While he remained in this place, the rebels surprized, at the village of Keith, a detachment of Kingiton's horse, and about seventy Argyleshire Highlanders, who were all either killed or taken. Several advanced parties of the militia met with the same fate in different places. Charles having ordered his forces to assemble, proposed marching to Aberdeen, to attack the Duke of Cumberland; but in consequence of a remonstrance from the clans, who declined leaving their families at the mercy of the King's garrison in Fort William, he resolved previously to reduce that fortress. The siege was accordingly undertaken by Brigadier Stapleton, an engineer in the French service; but the place was so bravely defended by Captain Scot, that in the beginning of April it was thought proper to relinquish the enterprise.

In the beginning of April, 1746, the Duke of Cumberland began his march from Aberdeen, and on the 12th passed the river Spey, without

any opposition from the rebels, though a considerable body of them made their appearance on the other side. His Royal Highness then proceeded to Nairn, where he received intelligence that the enemy had advanced from Inverness to Culloden, about the distance of nine miles from the royal army, with intention of making an attack. Charles' design was to march from Culloden in the night time, and to surprize the Duke's army at the break of day. For this purpose, the English camp had been reconnoitred, and on the night of the 15th, the Highland army began to march in two columns. They intended to surround the enemy, and attack them in all quarters, but the length of the columns impeded their march, so that they were obliged to make many halts. The men, who had been under arms all the preceding night, were faint with hunger and fatigue; some were unable to proceed, and others dropped off unperceived in the dark; so that these disadvantages retarded them greatly, and rendered it impossible for them to reach the Duke's camp before sun rise. Their scheme being thus frustrated, Charles, with great reluctance, followed the advice of his general officers, and returned to Culloden, where as soon as he arrived, great numbers of his followers dispersed in quest of provisions, and many, overcome by weariness and sleep, threw themselves down on the heath, and along the park-walls. Their repose, however, was soon interrupted in a very disagreeable manner, for Charles receiving intelligence that the enemy were advancing in full march to attack him, resolved to hazard an engagement, and ordered his troops to be formed for that purpose.

On the 16th of April, the Duke having made every necessary disposition, decamped early from Nairn, and after a march of nine miles, perceived the Highlanders drawn up in order of battle, to the number of between four and five thousand men, in thirteen divisions, supplied with a

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few pieces of artillery. His Royal Highness immediately formed his troops, who were more numerous, into three lines, disposed in excellent order; and about one o'clock in the afternoon the cannonading began. The artillery of the rebels was ill served, and did very little execution, but that of the King's army made prodigious slaughter among the enemy. Being severely galled by this fire, their front line rushed forward to the attack, and about five hundred of the clans charged the Duke's left wing with their usual impetuosity and courage. One regiment was disordered by the weight of this column, but two battalions advancing from the second line, sustained the first, and soon put a stop to their career by a severe fire, which killed a great number of them. At the same time, the dragoons under Hawley, with the Argyleshire militia, pulled down a park wall that covered their right flank, and the cavalry falling in among the rebels, sword in hand, completed their confusion. The French piquets on their left covered the retreat of the Highlanders by a regular and well-directed fire, and then retired to Inverness, where they surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the rebels marched off the field in great regularity with their bag-pipes playing before them, and Charles' standard displayed; the rest were routed with great slaughter, and their chief was with difficulty prevailed on to retreat. In less than half an hour they were totally defeated, and the field covered with slain. The road, as far as Inverness, was strewed with dead bodies, and a great many people, who, from motives of curiosity, had come to see the battle, were sacrificed in the hurry of the pursuit. Twelve hundred of the rebels were slain or wounded in the field, or in their flight. The Earl of Kilmarnock was taken, and in a few days Lord Balmerino surrendered to a country gentleman, at whose house he presented himself for that purpose.

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Thus vanished, in the short space of one hour, all the hopes of the young adventurer, and thus was a dangerous rebellion entirely extinguished.

When Charles saw the battle irrecoverably lost, he retired over the water to Nairn, where stopping to take a view of the field of battle, he was joined by some of his people that had fled the same way. After this he paid a private visit to old Lovat, in hopes that some plan might be concerted for his relief; but finding that nothing was to be done, it was resolved by his friends that they should keep at as great a distance from the enemy as possible. Sullivan, his faithful adherent, was of opinion, that they ought to go to Glengary, being persuaded that the enemy had not taken that route. They accordingly set out, and were received with much cordiality by Mr. McDonald, with whom Charles continued some time, reflecting on the miseries and misfortunes which he had brought upon his followers, and upon those which he was likely to experience before he could reach a place of safety. Several of the Chiefs, who visited him in his concealment in Glengary Castle, struck with his forlorn and melancholy situation, began to devise some scheme for retrieving his affairs; and for this purpose it was suggested, that the clans should continue on the hills, till they could by some trusty messenger inform the Court of Versailles of the true state of his army. This plan might in all probability have been agreed to, had they been able to procure money for the subsistence of those troops; but as this was impracticable, the proposal was dropped.

On the 23d of April, being informed that General Campbell was on his march from Inverness, with a large body of the Argyleshire militia, Charles, with a few of the Chiefs, his two favourites Sheridan and Sullivan, and about forty others, marched to Achnacarrie, where they had an interview with Lochiel; and

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at a fresh consultation it was agreed that this Chief, with the Camerons and the M'Donalds, should keep in a body, and favor any landing of succour from France; while Charles, with his friends Sullivan, Sheridan, and some others, should endeavor to raise such a force, as with reinforcements from abroad, might enable him to make a stand till more assistance could be procured. Next morning they set out for Glenphillin, where at his first landing, the Camerons erected his standard. Here they made a cave the place of their residence, and were provided with every thing necessary for life; but Charles being uneasy in his mind, intimated a desire to be gone; and accordingly, after remaining three days, they set out for the Isles.

About this time, that is, the beginning of May, two French men of war appearing on the coast, they were attacked by the Greyhound and two sloops, which they obliged to sheer off, and having landed a considerable quantity of money and ammunition, took on board the Duke of Perth, Lord John Drummond, and several other officers, and conveyed them all to France, except the Duke of Perth, who died on his passage. Charles being informed of this adventure, was exceedingly uneasy that he had missed the opportunity of escaping in them, and the more so, as he understood that they had landed 40,000 louis-d'ors, 35,000 of which had fallen into the hands of a person in whom he placed very little confidence.

Charles now finding that his affairs grew every day more and more desperate, that he was surrounded by enemies, and in continual danger of falling into their hands, consented to follow the advice given him by Sullivan of yielding to his misfortunes, so far as to consult his own safety. He therefore resolved to go in quest of a boat, to carry him over to the island of Lewis, where he entertained some hopes of finding a vessel to transport him to France. When they

reached the sea shore, they could find no boats, as the M'Donalds of Clanronalds' family had seized on all they could meet with, in order to transport themselves to South-Uist, and the boats were not yet returned. This obliged them to retire to the mountains, in which they wandered about for three days and nights. A boat, however, returning from South-Uist, to fetch more of their people that were missing, Charles, who observed it immediately, hastened to the shore, and raising a signal, the crew, who imagined that it was made by some of their party in distress, put into a small creek to the westward of Barrisdale, and taking him and his company on board, sailed directly to South-Uist; and night coming on, they were soon out of sight.

Being out at sea, some of the crew proposed to sail towards a small island called Canna, lying to the westward of Mull, and Charles knowing that the inhabitants were Roman Catholics, approved of the motion. Here they landed, and were received by the people with great hospitality; but on the 28th of May, perceiving some vessels coming out of the Sound of Mull, which they rightly judged belonged to the Campbells, Charles resolved to quit his place of residence. In pursuance of this plan, they proceeded to South-Uist, where they were hospitably entertained by Lady Clanronald, in the absence of her husband; but they were again alarmed for their safety, as Clanronald's brother had learned that General Campbell, informed of the place where Charles lay concealed, was hastening thither through North-Uist.

Upon this intelligence, Lady Clanronald earnestly intreated Charles to think of some method of escaping; and Lady Clanronald, pointing to Miss Flora M'Donald, said, "I will prevail upon this young lady to take your Highness under her protection." Lady Clanronald dressed Charles in women's clothes, and

and he kept nothing on of his own but his breeches and stockings. A boat was then ordered to be got ready for them, with a servant to attend the boatmen, who had orders to carry Miss Flora and her supposed maid to the isle of Sky. They were all night at sea, and next morning arrived at a place near Sir Alexander M'Donald's house; upon which a servant was sent on shore to see if they might safely land, but Charles suffered no one else to quit the boat till the servant's return. In about half an hour the man came back, and having assured them that there was nothing to fear, Miss M'Donald and her pretended maid proceeded directly to Sir Alexander's house, where they were received very politely by his lady, he himself being at that time with the Duke of Cumberland.

After dinner, they set out for the laird of M'Kinnon's house, where Charles resumed his former dress. Here they staid all night, and in the morning Miss M'Donald returned home. In the evening the Prince took a walk to the sea side, where he met with an old fisherman, named Norman M'Leod, perfectly well acquainted with all the Western Isles, and who happening to know him, agreed to carry him to Raza, which he did, and the proprietor of the island entertained him with much generosity; but being afraid of a visit from some of the King's party, he advised Charles to return to Skye. As this measure seemed to be dictated by prudence, and a regard for his safety, the Prince complied, and assuming the name of M'Kinnon, the better to conceal himself, continued there till General Campbell returned to the island.

That officer having arrived at South-Uist, was soon informed of Charles' departure, and in what manner he had effected his escape; upon which he took Lady Clanronald into custody, and pursued his way through North-Uist and Harris, till he came opposite to Skye, to which he had before sent Captain Ferguson in a

cutter. The Captain suspecting that the Prince might be concealed among the M'Kinnons, ordered the pilot to direct his course to that part of the country where they resided; and the vessel happening to put in at the very spot where Charles was, he would have certainly been taken, had he not retired behind a rising ground, and found means to make off. The boatman observing this, and that General Campbell was on the point of landing with his militia, steered his boat to the other side of the island, from which he carried the Prince to the Continent. He had, however, no sooner landed, than he was exposed to fresh danger, for a company of the Monroes were lying in watch for him, but by the prudence of his faithful attendant, old M'Kinnon, he escaped their vigilance.

Being convinced of his guide's fidelity, Charles resigned himself wholly to his conduct, and in compliance with his advice, repaired to the house of one M'Kenzie, who entertained him very courteously. Here and in the neighbourhood he continued till the 21st of July, when hearing that General Campbell had landed at Apple-cross Bay, he quitted the country entirely, having first sent home his guide, as he had then no farther occasion for him.

Having dressed himself in the habit of a peasant, he took the road to Inverness, but afterwards turning aside, he passed through Strathglass and Glengary, where his faithful friend Clunie M'Pherson concealed him, and supplied him with every necessary accommodation. In this place he might have remained in the greatest security, but as he was still haunted by a dread of falling into the hands of enemies, who were making every exertion to find him, he retired to a hill not far off, where he continued till the 8th of August, having been in Badenoch upwards of five weeks. General Campbell being informed by some prisoners he had taken, in what manner Charles shift-

ed his abode, brought his militia into that part of the country, and pursued him so closely, that they had frequently sight of him, or at least of the company he was in; but supposing them to be poor people of no consequence, no farther notice was taken of them.

In the mean time, one of Charles' attendants having informed him, that he knew where Lochiel was, offered to conduct him to the place; to this proposal he readily agreed, as he entertained hopes that Lochiel might direct him to some part of Lochaber, where less search was made for him. Clunie, however, and some other of his friends, insisted on his staying a little longer, or at least till an express could be dispatched to Lochiel, to which with great reluctance he consented.

About the 29th of August, Lochiel sent him an invitation to meet him at a certain cave, to which Charles went with his small retinue, clad in the Highland attire, and all wearing black cockades, except the Prince, who would not assume that part of the dress. Here they consulted on the most effectual means of escaping from Scotland, and it was agreed that they should repair separately to the coasts, and watch the appearance of any ship from France, in which they might embark. This being agreed on, Charles, with three or four attendants, made for the country of the M'Kenzies, crossing that vast tract of land which they occupied, and arriving at Kintail, went to the house of one M'Rae, who received him but coolly, as he thought it dangerous to entertain such guests. Charles therefore quitted him, and repaired to the water-side, in hopes of finding M'Kinnon, his faithful boatman. Having waited eight and forty hours in the most anxious expectation, M'Leod at length arrived with his boat, into which the Prince entered, and was conducted to a gentleman's house, who gave him a hearty welcome, and supplied him with necessaries, for by this time he was

in a most forlorn condition. His linen was exceedingly dirty; his clothes were threadbare and torn, and his shoes so rent that they scarcely kept his feet from the ground. In this place he might have continued in safety, but remembering the agreement he made with Lochiel, at their parting, of looking out for a ship, he removed in a day or two to the Isle of Skye, where he dismissed his attendants, and wrote to Lochiel to inform him where he was. At length, after various adventures and narrow escapes, a privateer of St. Malo, hired by Sheridan and some other adherents, arrived in Lochannach, in Muidart; and on the 20th of September, this unfortunate Prince embarked in the habit which he wore for a disguise. He was accompanied by Cameron, of Lochiel, and his brother, with a few other exiles. Having set sail for France, they passed unseen under cover of a thick fog through a British Squadron, commanded by Admiral Lestock, and after being chased by two English ships of war, arrived in safety at Rosseau, near Morlaix, in Bretagne. Thus after wandering about for five months in the utmost distress, surrounded by his enemies, and closely pursued by the King's troops, did Charles effect his escape; and though during that time, he was obliged to entrust his life to the fidelity of above fifty individuals, and though they knew that a price of thirty thousand pounds was set on his head, not one was found base enough to betray him.

After this period, Charles resided in France till the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, concluded in 1748, when the plenipotentiaries of France, in consequence of an article in that treaty, promised that he should be immediately obliged to quit the dominions of his Most Christian Majesty. Notice of this agreement was therefore given by the Court of Versailles to the young adventurer, and as he had declared that he would never return to Italy, Mr. de Courteille, the French

envoy

envoy to the Cantons of Switzerland, was ordered by his Sovereign to demand an asylum for Prince Edward in the city of Friburg. The regency having complied, Mr. Burnaby, the British Minister to the Helvetic body, presented a remonstrance to the Magistracy of Friburg, which produced a very severe answer. The King of France in vain exerted his influence to procure this retreat for Charles, who though repeatedly requested to withdraw, persisted in refusing to quit the place, to which he had been so cordially invited by his cousin, the King, and where he said that monarch had solemnly promised that he would never forsake him in his distress. Louis was not a little uneasy at this obstinacy in the Prince, especially as he appeared to be much beloved by the Parisians, who not only esteemed him for his accomplishments, and pitied him for his sufferings, but also revered him as a young hero lineally descended from their renowned Henry the Fourth. At length two English noblemen arriving at Paris as hostages for the performance of the treaty, who seeing the Prince appear at all public places, complained of this circumstance as an insult to their Sovereign, and an infringement of the treaty. The King, after some hesitation, resolved to employ violence in order to get rid of this troublesome guest, as remonstrances seemed to have no effect; but this resolution was not executed till he had dispatched a courier to his father, who being thus informed of his son's deportment, wrote a letter to him, in which he strongly enjoined him to yield to the necessity of the times, and to acquiesce in the stipulations which his cousin of France had found it necessary to make for the interest of his kingdom. Charles, far from complying with this advice, signified his resolution to remain in Paris, and even declared that he would shoot any man who should presume to lay violent hands on his person. In consequence of this declaration, a Council was held at Versailles, when

it was determined to arrest him without further delay, and the whole plan of this enterprise was finally adjusted. The same evening the Prince entering a narrow lane leading to the Opera, the barrier was immediately shut, and the Serjeant of the guard called out "to arms;" on which Mr. de Vaudreuil, an exempt of the French guards, advancing to the Prince, said, I arrest you in the King's name by virtue of this order; at that instant the Prince was surrounded by four grenadiers, in order to prevent any mischief he might have done with a pair of pocket pistols, which he always carried about him, and a guard was placed at all the avenues and doors of the Opera house, lest any tumult should ensue among the populace. These precautions being taken, Vaudreuil with an escorte, conducted the prisoner through the garden of the Palais Royal, to a house where the Duke de Byron waited with a coach and six to convey him to the castle of Vincennes, whither he was immediately accompanied by a detachment from the regiment of French guards, under the command of that nobleman. He did not, however, long remain in confinement, at the end of three days he gave the French ministry to understand, that he would conform himself to the King's intentions, and he was immediately enlarged, on giving his word and honor that he would without delay retire from the dominions of France. Accordingly he set out in four days from Fontainebleau, attended by three officers, who conducted him as far as Pont-Beauvoisin, on the frontiers; where they took leave of him; and returned to Versailles. For some time he proceeded in the road to Chamberri, but soon returned into the French territories, and passing through Dauphiné, repaired to Avignon, where he was received with extraordinary honors by the Pope's legate. In the mean time, his arrest excited great murmurings at Paris, the inhabitants blaming their Sovereign's conduct in this

this instance, as a scandalous breach of hospitality, as well as a mean proof of condescension to the King of England, and many satirical pasquinades relating to this transaction were fixed up in most of the public places of that metropolis.

Charles made his public entry into Avignon, with great solemnity, on the 2d of January, 1749, being in a coach and six with Lord Dunbar, preceded by a troop of the Pope's horse, and followed by the coaches of the nobility, and having repaired to the Archiepiscopal Palace, had a supper and a ball. At this place, however, he remained only a few months, and then went to Liege, where he lived some time in a very private manner, and assumed the title of Baron de Montgomerie. How long he continued in this situation, or what private excursions he made into other countries seems to be uncertain, but about the year 1757, he settled at Bouillon,* where he resided till the death of his father called him to Rome.

People of keen sensations and delicate feelings, when oppressed by misfortunes, or soured by disappointments, too often have recourse to an expedient, which, though it may afford a temporary relief, tends only to make their distress more poignant in the moments of sober reflection. This expedient is the joys of the bottle; and whether it was to dispel the melancholy thoughts of his unfortunate expedition, or, as some have pretended, to alleviate his grief for the loss of a French lady of distinction, who had lived with him, and who was his peculiar favourite, it is certain, that while he resided at Bouillon, he was much addicted to drinking. It is even said, that when this lady, stung with remorse for her conduct, retired either really or pretend- edly to a convent at that place, in

the first heat of his rage he fired a pistol through one of the windows, which wounded a nun in the shoulder. After this event, he appeared calm and composed, talked very rationally, read much, and seemed to be extremely fond of musick. About this period he was rather lusty, his complexion was florid, and he had a complaint in his legs, which obliged him to wear half boots.

In the beginning of the year 1766, soon after the death of his father, the Chevalier de St. George, Charles repaired to Rome, under the name of Baron Douglass, and had his first audience of the Pope on the 16th of January; but as his Holiness refused to acknowledge him by his father's title, who called himself King of England, he resolved to quit Rome, which he afterwards did, and retired to Florence, where he was known by the title of Count D'Albany. An ingenious traveller and elegant writer,† who saw him here, makes the following excellent reflections in one of his letters, upon his situation at this place, as contrasted with his former views and expectations.

"Soon after our arrival at Florence," says he, "in one of the avenues of this walk, we observed two men and two ladies, followed by four servants in livery. One of the men wore the insignia of the garter. We were told this was the Count Albany, and that the lady next to him was the Countess. We yielded the walk, and pulled off our hats. The gentleman along with them was the Envoy from the King of Prussia to the Court of Turin. He whispered the Count, who, returning the salutation, looked very earnestly at the Duke of Hamilton. We have seen them almost every evening since, either at the Opera or on the public walk. His Grace does not affect to shun the avenue in which they happen to be;

* A town of France, in the duchy of the same name, and in the territory of Luxemburg. It has a castle situated on an almost inaccessible rock, near the river Semois.

† Dr. Moore, author of *A View of Society and Manners in Italy, Zeluco, &c.*

and as often as we pass near them, the Count fixes his eyes in a most expressive manner upon the Duke, as if he meant to say—our ancestors were better acquainted.

"You know, I suppose, that the Count Albany is the unfortunate Charles Stuart, who left Rome some time since on the death of his father, because the Pope did not think proper to acknowledge him by the title which he claimed on that event. He now lives at Florence, on a small revenue allowed him by his brother. The Countess is a beautiful woman, much beloved by those who know her, who universally describe her as lively, intelligent, and agreeable. Educated as I was in Revolution principles, and in a part of Scotland where the religion of the Stuart family, and the maxims by which they governed, are more reprobated than perhaps in any part of Great Britain, I could not behold this unfortunate person without the warmest emotion and sympathy. What must a man's feelings be, who finds himself excluded from the most brilliant situation, and noblest inheritance that this world affords, and reduced to an humiliating dependance on those who, in the natural course of events, should have looked up to him for protection and support? What must his feelings be, when on a retrospective view, he beholds a series of calamities attending his family, that is without example in the annals of the unfortunate; calamities of which those they experienced after their accession to the throne of England, were only a continuation? Their misfortunes began with their royalty, adhered to them through ages, increased with the increase of their dominions, did not forsake them when dominion was no more; and as he has reason to dread, from his own experience, are not yet terminated. It will afford no alleviation or comfort, to recollect that part of this black list of calamities arose from the imprudence of his ancestors; and that many gallant men, in England, Scotland, and Ireland,

have at different periods been involved in their ruin.

"Our sympathy for this unfortunate person is not checked by any blame which can be thrown on himself. He surely had no share in the errors of the first Charles, the profligacy of the second, or the impolitic and bigotted attempts of James against the laws and established religion of Great Britain and Ireland; therefore, whilst I contemplate with approbation and gratitude the conduct of those patriots who resisted and expelled that infatuated monarch, ascertained the rights of the subject, and settled the constitution of Great Britain on the firm basis of freedom on which it has stood ever since the Revolution, and on which I hope it will ever stand; yet I freely acknowledge, that I never could see the unfortunate Count Albany without sentiments of compassion and the most lively sympathy.

"I write with the more warmth, as I have heard of some of our countrymen, who, during their tours through Italy, made the humble state to which he is reduced a frequent theme of ridicule, and who, as often as they met him in public, affected to pass by with an air of sneering insult. The motive to this is as base and abject as the behaviour is unmanly; those who endeavour to make misfortune an object of ridicule, are themselves the objects of detestation. A British nobleman or gentleman has certainly no occasion to form an intimacy with the Count Albany; but while he appears under that name, and claims no other title, it is ungenerous, on every accidental meeting, not to behave to him with the respect due to a man of high rank, and the delicacy due to a man highly unfortunate.

"One thing is certain; that the same disposition which makes men insolent to the weak, renders them slaves to the powerful; and those who are most apt to treat this unfortunate person with an ostentatious contempt at Florence,

Florence, would have been his most abject flatterers at St. James's."

In the year 1772, he married the Princess of Stolberg, a German lady, who was grand-daughter to Thomas Bruce, Earl of Aylesbury, father of Charles Bruce, the last Earl, in whose person that title became extinct. Her grandfather being a Roman catholic, settled at Brussels, where he married for his second lady Charlotte Countess of Sanna, of the noble family of Argenteau, by whom he had an only daughter, Charlotte Maria, who in 1722 married the Prince of Horne, one of the princes of the Empire, by whom he had five children, the youngest of whom married Count D'Albany. This union, however, to whatever cause it might have been owing, was not attended with that happiness which is generally expected in the married state, for she separated from him a few years after, and the breach between them was never again made up. The account of this affair, as it appeared in the foreign papers, was as follows.

"On the 9th of December, 1780, the Countess of Albany went to a convent at Florence, called the *Convento*, under pretence of buying some flowers, and not returning soon, the Count followed her, and alighting, the Priorefs from behind the grate, told him that the Countess had resolved to become a pensioner there; upon this the prince fell into a violent rage, but on the Priorefs' remonstrating with him on the impropriety of his behaviour in such a place, and telling him that the convent was under the protection of the Grand Duke, and that from him he must seek redress, he was prevailed on to withdraw." The same account adds, "And now it is known that not only the Grand Duke but the Pope took pity on the princefs for the ill treatment she could not but receive from a drunken husband. The Cardinal York also has espoused her cause, and provided her a retirement in the Ursuline convent at Rome, under

"the Pope's protection, where she is now settled on a pension of six thousand scudis a year."

After this period Count D'Albany seems to have sunk into insignificance and oblivion, and he lived almost entirely forgotten, till the period of his death, which happened at Rome, on the 31st of January, 1787, being then in the sixty eighth year of his age. By his will he made his natural daughter, whom he had by a Scotch lady of an ancient family, and whom, in virtue of his pretended royal power as King of England, he created Duchess of Albany, sole heiress of all his property, which was very considerable. To his brother, Cardinal York, he bequeathed two thousand ounces of plate, and to the Chevalier Stuart, his confidential secretary, an hundred ducats. He left directions also to his daughter to continue to his servants their respective apartments, as a recompence for their faithful services, and to allow them annuities for life to the amount of their wages.

His remains were interred with great pomp and ceremony in the church of Fiescati, a town twelve miles from Rome, of which his brother the Cardinal is Bishop. The funeral service was performed on the 3d of February by his brother.

The following epitaph is said to be inscribed on the monument erected to the memory of the late Count D'Albany:—*Hic situs est Carolus Odoardus, cui pater, Jacobus III. Rex Angliæ, Franciæ, Scotiæ, Hiberniæ. Primus natorum paterni Juris et Regiæ dignitatis successor et hæres; qui domicilio delatus Comes Albanensis dictus est. Vixit annos 67, et mensem Decessit in pace Kal. Feb. an. 1788. Henricus, Cardinalis Episcopus Tusulanus, cui sæternæ jura tituli que cessere, Ducis Eboracensis appellatione resumpta, in ipso lætu amoris et reverentiæ obsecutus, in dicto in templum suum funere, multis cum lachrymis, præsens iussu persolvit fratri augustissimo honoremque sepulchri ampliatum destinavit.*

ON THE MAHOMETAN COLLEGES, AND THE STATE OF LEARNING IN TURKEY.

SINCE the origin of Mussulmanism, the founders of mosques considered it as a duty to erect, near their temples, a college entirely appropriated for the study of law and theology. None, therefore, were received into these seminaries but those intended for the profession of Oulemas, who, divided into two classes, formed, as they do at present, magistrates and priests.

The progress of the Arabians in letters, and the fine arts, having followed that of their arms and their dominion, in the three divisions of the ancient continent, these colleges soon began to cultivate, with the greatest success, all those sciences which contributed so much to the glory of the Greeks and the Romans. Geography, history, medicine, philosophy, metaphysics, and astronomy were taught in them. We find, in the annals of the east, an enumeration of the superb *Medresses*, or colleges, which the caliphs, the anti-caliphs, and the other Mahometan potentates erected at Mecca, Medina, Bagdad, Damascus, in Persia, Africa, and Spain, &c. The downfall of the monarchy of the caliphs, and that of the dynasties, which, rising upon their ruins, were successively destroyed one after another, had a great influence over the fate of letters. They languished every where, and the *Medresses* were again confined to the study of law and theology, the only objects of their primitive institution.

Such was the state of all the Mahometan colleges in Asia and Africa about the end of the thirteenth century, when Osman I. laid at Seugutdjik the foundation of a new empire. More occupied with his fortune, and the success of his arms, than with the progress of science in his rising monarchy, he contented himself with maintaining the ancient colleges upon

the same footing in which they then were. Orkhan I. his son and successor, having, in 731*, built an imperial mosque at Nicea, erected also a college, which, for more than a century, was considered as the first of all the Othoman *Medresses*. He called it, after his own name, *Medressé-y-Orkhanîye*, and entrusted the direction of it to the Scheyk Davoud Caissary, under the title of *Muderris*, after the manner of all the Mahometan *Medresses*. But this college, like those which the sultans of his family and the grandees of the state established afterwards, had for its object, like the former, those branches of knowledge which were necessary for the ministers of religion, and of the law.

It is true that Mourad I. Mourad II. Mohammed II. Selim I. and Suleyman, all zealous protectors of the sciences, wished to revive the Arabian literature in the nation. They neglected nothing that might tend to give a lustre to the principal *Medresses* of their empire, especially to those founded by themselves; but their views were feebly seconded by their successors, especially after the fatal epocha of imprisoning princes of the blood. The attention of all the *Medresses* in the empire are therefore directed at present to two objects only, law and theology.

These studies, however, are prosecuted with much order and method; they are divided into ten classes, under the common denomination of *Ilm*, which means science, viz. Grammar, *Ilm-Sarf*; Syntax, *Ilm-Nabwu*; Logic, *Ilm-Mantik*; Morality, *Ilm-Adab*; the science of Allegories, *Ilm-Meany*; which serves also instead of rhetoric; Theology, *Ilm-Kelam*; philosophy, *Ilm-Hikmet*; jurisprudence, *Ilm-Fikih*; the *Courran*, and its commentaries, *Ilm-Teffir*; and the oral laws of the prophet, *Ilm-Hadis*.

These are the principal sciences taught in these Medresses, the only colleges to be found in the empire. Their number however is considerable, since, in all the great towns, the principal mosques have each a college, and some have two, three, and even four, especially imperial mosques. That of the Sultan Suleyman has five, one of which is peculiarly set apart for the study of physic. The mosque of the Sultan Mohammed is the only one which has eight. All these edifices are built of stone, and contain from ten to thirty cells, or apartments, called *Heudjreth*, which are occupied by one or more students, according to the number in each college.

These students have the name of *Sofia*, a corrupted word, formed from *Sonkbit*, which signifies a burnt being, and, in a figurative sense, a patient, one suffering. They are called also *Muid*, or *Murid*, that is to say disciples; and *Danischmend*, the true and only acceptance of which is one who studies. Rectors, under the title of *Khodja*, direct their studies instead of professors, who, deviating from the primitive rules of their institution, often dispense with their duty, and are contented with making their appearance once or twice a month. Formerly the *Musties* visited, from time to time, the *Medresses* of the Sultan Bajezid, and gave public lessons to the most advanced students, making it a duty, says Ahmed-Efendy, to enlighten these colleges with the flambeau of their science and learning.

In some of these colleges the *Sof-tas* study in common; in others each studies by himself. The vast extent of the Arabian language, the complication of some of its principles, and the multiplicity of classical authors, render all these studies tedious and laborious.

Every one knows that the Turkish, the Persian, and the Arabic, are the only languages with which the Othomans are acquainted. The primitive Turkish, poor and destitute of harmony, is the idiom of the people. The Persian, the pronunciation of

which is very soft, is cultivated by those only who have a taste for poetry. Nothing can equal the richness of the Arabic language; notwithstanding the harsh sounds which result from the guttural letters *ain, ghain, ha, khy*, &c. which are disagreeable in the mouths of the Arabians, but not in those of the Othomans. This language requires a continued application of several years to acquire a thorough knowledge of it. The study of it is indispensibly necessary; because the Courran, and all the ancient works upon theology, philosophy, and law, are written in Arabic, in the idiom called *Courreysch*, which has little affinity with any of those numerous dialects that prevail in different cantons of Arabia, Egypt, Syria, and Africa. It requires, therefore, a particular study; especially at Constantinople, and in the neighbouring provinces, where the Arabic is, as one may say, a dead language, and where nothing is spoken in common but Turkish.

This last language, much cultivated under the first Othoman sultans, but especially under Suleyman I. borrowed the richness of the Persian and the Arabic; so that this new idiom, which we must distinguish from the old Turkish, abandoned to the vulgar forms, as one may say, a fourth language, consecrated to the use of the court, and to all those who have received a tolerable education. It is in this idiom also, equally noble and harmonious, that all books on history, all scientific works, all the edicts of the sovereign, all the ordinances of the ministers, and lastly, every thing that proceeds from the chancery of the empire, and from the different public offices, is written.

The alphabet and characters of these languages are the same; and though in this alphabet there are properly but three vowels, four months application is sufficient to enable one to read and write it, the orthography being infinitely more simple, and more agreeable to the pronunciation, than the French or English appears to be to a stranger. The different characters of
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the Arabic, which are common to the Turkish and Persian, differ from one another only by the termination of the letters, by their connection and punctuation, which adds very little to the first lessons necessary either to a native or a stranger.

These characters are diversified in ten different ways. Each has its denomination, and its particular use. The simplest, and therefore the most common, is the *Neskh* or *Neskiy*, which is used exclusively for books, either in manuscript or printed. The *Diwani* is employed for letters, affairs in general, and more particularly for ordonances, *Fermanis*, and for every thing relating to the public offices. The *Siyacih* is reserved for what concerns the finances only. The *Rik'a* for requests, memoirs, and petitions. The *Talik* and the *Diwani-Neskiy* are particularly set apart for poems, chronograms, and fugitive pieces. The *Sulusi*, the *Sulusi-djerisy*, and the *Neskh-djerisy*, are only for devices, inscriptions, and legends; and the *Djery* for brevets, diplomas, as well as for inscriptions on mosques, and other public edifices. They use sometimes also the *Kiufy* for inscriptions on temples. The *Neskiy*, and the *Diwani*, are the characters mostly used among all classes of the nation. There are none but the clerks, *Keatibs*, who apply to the rest. They are all so skilful in tracing them out, that one would take them for letters engraved.

The students of the Medresses do not occupy their time with this diversity of the Arabic letters: but they add to their exercises, to a knowledge of the Courran, and its commentaries, the pronunciation appropriated for all the words of this book, which is accounted holy. The accents, inflexions, pauses in common reading, and in the psalmody of public prayers, require all a particular study.

Several apply also to the Persian poetry, the most esteemed works of which are the *Pend-attar*, the *Gulistan*, *Bostan*, *Scherwerib*, *Hafiz*, *Saib-aufy*, &c. In the three lan-

guages we find likewise a number of epic poems, amorous verses, many other poetical works, and considerable collections of proverbs, adages, and very judicious apothegms. Those who have a taste for the sciences apply also to the study of medicine, philosophy, astronomy, and the mathematics. But as these studies are only, as one may say, accessory; as the object of them is merely to gratify curiosity, and as those who pursue them are destined either to be magistrates, or to minister in the temples, it may be readily perceived, that their progress in these abstract sciences, foreign to their professions, cannot be very brilliant.

Such is the present state of all the *Medresses*, or colleges of the empire, which may be considered as so many nurseries that furnish on one side the *Sheyhs*, *Imams*, and the *Muezzins* of all the Mahometan temples, and on the other the *Muderrisi*, *Cadis*, and *Naibs*, &c. which fill all the subaltern offices of judicature. Seldom do they arrive at the first offices: for several centuries past these have been reserved for some of the most distinguished families among the *Oulemas*, whose children, like those of other citizens, receive no instruction but in the houses of their fathers.

This private education is regulated upon the same plan as that which is followed in the *Medresser*. That pursued by the young nobility, and by all those who are intended to have a share in political affairs, is much less extensive. Eastern history and works of philosophy are the objects to which they particularly apply. There are few who study metaphysics, geometry, the mathematics, and the principles of government. These sciences are in a very languishing state in Turkey, because government does not seriously attend to them, and because the whole nation have very little taste for them.

Instruction formerly was much more general among the Othomans, because the Sultans themselves were enlightened, and encouraged letters and the sciences,

sciences, as much by their example as by the wisdom of their laws. If all the monarchs of the Othoman race since Osman I. to Ahmed I. have not made an equal figure on the throne by their virtues and warlike abilities, they have, however, almost all distinguished themselves by their erudition and their attachment to learning. In their courts, and around their persons, they had only men of letters; they maintained theses against the most learned of the *Oulemas*, asked them learned questions which often embarrassed them, and they composed pieces both in verse and prose, with much taste and eloquence.

In the annals of the monarchy we find some beautiful fragments of their works, and several striking marks of their genius, character, and sentiments. Osman I. when on his death-bed addressed the following remarkable words to Orkhan, "Dry up your tears, my son, afflict not yourself in vain on account of my dismal situation. We all ought to be perfectly resigned to the will of heaven. The breath of destruction blows equally upon the young and the old, upon kings as well as upon their subjects. I finish my course with joy, and I shut my eyes with cheerfulness, since I behold in you an heir to my fortune, and a successor to my power. Listen, however, to my voice, hear my counsel, and respect my last request, like a latter will, which you ought to discharge with filial love and religious fidelity. Wield my sceptre, but with magnanimity, reign over my empire, but with justice. May the rays of justice shine around your throne, and enlighten the whole horizon. Banish far from you injustice and tyranny, be the defender of the Couran, the support of our faith, the protector of sciences, and the benefactor of the *Oulemas*. Search for, and every where honor men eminent for their piety and learning, walk continually, and with firmness in the paths of glory, valour, and heroism. In every thing observe my steps, in every thing observe my maxims; and never be

"come vain on account of your strength, or riches, or of the power of your armies, however numerous, however invincible they may be; always consider our holy religion as the heaven of grandeur and majesty, and our sacred laws as the basis of authority and supreme power. Never lose sight of the mysterious views of the Eternal, who hath blessed our arms, not to procure us worldly and perishable grandeur, but to support the edifice of celestial worship, and to protect his faithful adorers. Let all your care, therefore, all your solicitude, and all your efforts, be directed to this august object, as to the happiness of your people, that sacred deposit which the Most High hath committed to your hands. Know, in short, that you reign—that you are Sultan only to protect Islamism, to defend your dominions, to cherish your subjects, and to make the whole world feel the mild effects of royal clemency, generosity, and justice; these are the only means of prospering, and of calling down upon your person the blessings of God, and of his prophet."

Mohammed I. some days before his death, wrote to Mourad, his son, then governor of Amassia, to repair quickly to his presence, and added at the bottom of his letter the following Persian distich. "If our night shall pass away, it will be followed by a brilliant day, if our rose fades, it will be replaced by a delicious rose bush."

Bajezid II. alarmed at hearing that Prince *Djem*, his brother, so famous in Europe under the name of Zizim, upon his return from Egypt, and a pilgrimage to Mecca, was again taking up arms in Anatolia to dispute the throne with him, sent him the following verses: "Since thou canst at present boast of having discharged the sacred duty of pilgrimage, why, my Prince, shouldst thou be inflamed with so much desire for an earthly kingdom? Since the empire has fallen to my lot, by the eternal

"eternal decrees of heaven, why doest thou not yield with resignation to the adorable will of Providence?" *Djem* replied by the following distich—"Whilst you, reclined on a bed of repose, live midst joy and pleasure, why ought *Djem*, deprived of every comfort, to lay his head on a pillow of thorns?"

Selim I. one of the most learned of all the Sultans, excelled likewise in the Persian and the Arabic. The letter which he wrote with his own hand to Schah-Ismael, is a sufficient proof of his genius and erudition*. But, after that moment, when the heirs apparent to the throne were exposed to the fatal sentence that condemned them to close imprisonment, which weakens every faculty of the mind, and of the heart, we no longer behold the genius of an Osman, a Mohammed, or a Selim, shine upon the Othoman throne.

The influence of this custom, or rather arbitrary law of the seraglio, the source of all those misfortunes with which this vast empire is afflicted, produces a barrenness of abilities in every mind, and checks among the sovereigns, as well as among their subjects, the progress of the arts and sciences. This first cause gives birth to a great many more, which all concur to produce the same effects; among these we may reckon popular prejudices, or rather that superstitious respect which the nation entertains for their ancient customs, want of an intimate communication with the Europeans, the slow progress of printing, an aversion to foreign languages, their neglecting to translate the best works published in Christian countries, a repugnance to travel out of the empire, their system of never sending ambassadors to reside at foreign courts, and lastly, that feeble impression made by objects upon the minds of those who have only imperfect notions of their importance and utility.

To these general causes we may add

the consequences which always arise from the faults of administration, the greatest of all which is the instability of offices. The minister, or the public officer, who has risen by favor, or intrigue, and who, every moment, trembles lest another intrigue should in turn precipitate him from his exalted station, applies with the greatest attention to the duties of his office, and sacrificing his zeal to his safety, he pays very little attention to those objects which appear to be foreign to his business. Even the most enlightened people, those who examine things with the greatest sagacity, who know all the wants of the nation, and who are sensible of the necessity of reformation, are contented with lamenting, amidst silence and inactivity. No one has courage to make the first step to set on foot any plan, to speak of reformation, or to propose an establishment; but if any one makes representations to them, they listen readily, make judicious objections, and seem desirous of concurring; but in such a manner as not to expose themselves to the envy of party, nor to the censures of the public. When an officer suffers himself to be carried away by his zeal, when by his ability he has brought over to his opinion the ministers, the principal characters in the empire, and above all, the Grand Vizir and the Musty, nothing stops the execution of plans which seem to shock the prejudices of the nation. In such cases, that easiness of temper, which is peculiar to them, rather than the imperious voice of necessity, induces them to suffer themselves to be conducted even by the hand of a foreigner.

About the end of the last reign a new mathematical school was proposed, which was immediately established. The advantages of the bayonet, of a machine for erecting masts, of a new foundry for cannon, and of a new corps of artillery, &c. were laid before them, and they set about them

* The reader will find a translation of this letter in the Literary Magazine for November, 1788, p. 449.

with great eagerness. The necessity of raising new fortresses at the mouth of the Black Sea was insinuated to them, and they forthwith sacrificed considerable sums for that purpose. If equal success hath not attended all these establishments; if they have not been followed by many others, equally advantageous, we must principally attribute it to particular causes, which it does not belong to us to unveil; but they no less prove the aptitude of the nation to learn, and the disposition of the ministry to be instructed, to listen to the counsels of friendship, to adopt new systems, and to rise, according to circumstances, above national prejudices. Did some young Mussulmans, of distinguished rank, study in the principal cities of Eu-

rope, on their return to Constantinople, they might bring about a considerable revolution in letters, as well as in the public administration. Should strangers even, acquainted with the language and customs of the country, dressed after the eastern manner, attentive to flatter the dignity of the great, and the self-love of the officers, whom they would have as co-operators, recommend themselves, by their learning and abilities, but above all by a wise and modest conduct, it is almost certain that, by gaining the confidence of the ministry, they would be able to make them, without difficulty, adopt new maxims, and to direct by themselves, underhand and without shew, a number of useful and advantageous establishments.

STATE OF THE MARITIME FORCES OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

BY MR. CHENIER.

AS the Ottomans took their rise in the center of Asia Minor, they had no idea of marine affairs, and in their first progress in Europe, they were aided by foreign succours. Some historians, however, speak of sea engagements under Othman, and Orcan his son, between the Ottomans and the Lords of the Archipelago, supported by some of the Princes of Italy; but these relations deserve very little credit. Historians speak also of a fleet of three hundred ships, which Bajazet caused to be built, but we no where find what use he made of them. Perhaps, it was only a scheme, which the misfortunes he experienced did not permit him to execute,

It was not till the reign of Mahomet I. that the Ottomans began to construct ships with oars at Nicomedia, where the forests of Bithynia, and the borders of the Black Sea, supplied them with abundance of wood. The first use which they made of their fleets, was to cruise

against the Venetians; who at that time enjoyed almost exclusively the trade of the Mediterranean, and of the Black Sea; but owing to the inexperience of the commanders, and the arms of the Venetians, their ships were soon destroyed. Mahomet II. having formed a design of besieging Constantinople, he exerted himself to restore the marine, as much to oppose the assistance which the Greeks expected from Italy, as to be able to penetrate into the port of that capital, and to attack it on both sides at once. He fitted for sea more than three hundred vessels with oars, and though this fleet was not in a condition to oppose the passage of a few well-armed ships, yet it was of great use in supporting the ambitious schemes of that Prince.

The taking of Constantinople was one of the first steps of the progress of the Ottoman marine, because the port of that capital, its commerce, and easy communication with the Black and Mediterranean seas, procured

cured it great advantages, and the Morea was almost all subdued.

Under Bajazet II. the Ottoman marine acquired much celebrity for a moment. In some battles with the Venetians, the success of their arms was balanced. The Ottomans seized upon Lepanto, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and successively conquered all the Morea, and the isle of Negropont, which belonged to the Venetians.

The Sultan Selim I. whose reign was as short as it was glorious, made some preparation for the construction of arsenals, in different parts of his empire. Under his reign the Ottomans had already several vessels, and Soliman I. his successor, made use even of his fleet to seize upon the island of Rhodes: under the reign of that Prince the Italians ravaged the Morea, which was retaken by the Ottomans. Soliman afterwards sent a fleet to the Mediterranean, to co-operate with the French, and after this he undertook the siege of Malta; his commanders also committed hostilities against the Portuguese, on the coast of Ormus, with ships which they had equipped in the Persian Gulph. Under the reign of Selim II. the Ottomans, emboldened by the taking of Cyprus, and by the success of their arms, set on foot formidable armaments destined for the Mediterranean, but they lost the famous battle of Lepanto, where John of Austria commanded the armaments of Spain and Italy united, and where the maritime forces of the empire were annihilated.

This loss, however, did not discourage the Ottomans. After having re-established their marine, they were able, under Mahomet IV. to seize on the island of Crete, as well as the fortress of Candia; but under the same reign the Ottoman marine went to decline, and their fleet, several times beat or routed by the Venetians, could not prevent, towards the end of the seventeenth century, the loss of all the Morea. This vast province was, however, retaken in

the beginning of this century, under the reign of Achmet III. as much for want of foresight in the Venetians, as by the activity of the Ottoman Generals. Gianum Cogea, grand admiral, and a warlike man, not depending so much on the Ottoman marine, as to hazard an engagement, ordered the troops to make several descents, and the Ottomans were in a condition to attack places before the Venetians thought of defending them. However powerful the ascendancy of the allies then might have been, the Morea, soon retaken by the Ottomans, has since remained in their hands, notwithstanding the loss they sustained at the same time by the battle and fortress of Belgrade.

In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, when the powers of Europe had only a rising marine, all nations were then almost on a level. The Ottomans, the Spaniards, the Maltese, the Tuscans, and the other flags of Italy, then scoured the Mediterranean, as much to procure booty as to combat. As the southern nations, even then, preserved some remains of that spirit of chivalry which prevailed in the preceding centuries, the Ottoman vessels were seen in the Mediterranean, bidding defiance, in some measure, to the Maltese, the Spaniards, and the Italians, in single engagements, where a skill in manœuvres was of little avail, and desperate courage did every thing. The Turks then were accounted brave; they were indeed the only people who had preserved from the ancients the custom of boarding, and it appears that in general they acquitted themselves well in this respect; but in proportion as Europe gave itself up to the emulation of conquest, and to that spirit of enterprise by which it has always been agitated; and in proportion as it brought its knowledge to perfection, and subjected every thing to principles and to demonstration, by calculations, its marine made an astonishing progress, and except in a few instances, the Ottomans have remained at the same place from which

we set out. The theory of navigation, and the form of vessels, were afterwards brought to perfection; boarding became less convenient, and more difficult, because the same experience which directed the dangers of it, taught also that they ought to be avoided. All naval science at present consists in manœuvring with skill, in the knowledge of evolutions, in readily seizing advantages, in profiting by the faults of the enemy, and in the art of resisting storms, and subjecting the elements to the intrepidity and constancy of men. This application supposes an obstinate labor, which the Ottomans are not capable of undergoing, but it is perhaps incompatible with their prejudices, and with that blind submission to fate, which seems to proscribe men from combining means to protect themselves from danger. The Ottomans confess their inferiority at sea, and, without blushing at their ignorance, say, that God gave them the earth to be the theatre of their victories, and that he left the sea to the Christians.

The Ottomans have established their navy a little; that which they have, ought to be considered rather as a demonstration of their power than as of any real utility. There sails every year from the capital a squadron of several ships and galleys, which goes to the Archipelago, to receive tribute, and sends a division as far as Alexandria. The departure of this fleet at the end of April, and its return at the end of October, according to the etiquette of the Eastern empire, some usages of which the Ottomans have preserved, are two days of triumph and solemnity. One would say when the fleet departs, that the Ottoman admiral was going to dispute the empire of the sea with all other nations, and, on his return, that not one enemy remained to be conquered.

The two wars with Russia, in 1769 and 1787, were fatal to the Ottoman navy. In the first, their fleet was burnt at Chesmè; and, in the second, the armaments which they sent into

the Black Sea were exposed to storms, and to some losses. The Turkish squadron, however, forced that of Russia to return to harbour, whilst it kept possession of the seas during all the campaign of 1788.

The Ottoman navy is not formidable by itself, and it is still less so, on account of the inexperience of its commanders: of all nations, however, they are the people who might have the readiest means of establishing a powerful navy, were they fully sensible of the necessity of it. Independent of the number and safety of their harbours, their territories abound with every production requisite for constructing and rigging vessels, whilst the shores of Albania, of the Morea, the Archipelago, the Propontis, those of the Black Sea, and of Asia and Egypt, which make more than a thousand leagues in extent of sea coast, might supply them with plenty of sailors, active and strong, and very proper for navigation. The greater part of these mariners being Greeks, there would be some inconvenience in trusting them with ships and arms; and, on the other hand, the Turks not being much inclined to a sea life, they would not derive any benefit from those advantages which nature has lavished upon them.

The maritime force of the Ottoman empire consists in ships of the line, frigates, gallies, and other small vessels with oars, which they employ in the Archipelago, and the Black Sea. They have, generally, never above from fifteen to twenty vessels, or frigates, and it is only since the war in 1769 that they have increased their number, and made some improvements in the construction of them. Their ships, though heavily built, are light sailers, but they easily grow crooked. This arises, no doubt, from the quality of the timber, which is neither so hard, nor so compact as that of the north, and their ships do not last long. It is true that, among the Ottomans, where Providence does every thing, and where the men are employed only in destroying,

stroying, less care is bestowed than in Europe on the building and preserving of ships.

The Ottoman Porte has no more than twelve or fifteen gallies in its service, three of which belong to the state; the other nine, as well as a few galliots and xebeques, belong to the Beys of Smyrna, Scio, Metylene, Rhodes, Negropont, the Morea, &c. and are intended for the preservation of the coasts. The Grand Signior allows these governors revenues, in fiefs or military benefices, on condition of their furnishing, at their own expence, a galley armed and victualled. The three galleys which belong to government are manned with criminals; but the crews of those of the Beys are composed only of volunteers, who receive pay, or Circassian, Mingrelian, or Georgian slaves, whom the Beys employ in cultivating their lands when they have finished a campaign. These slaves being a real property, the Beys are interested in sparing them, and they are well nourished.

The Regencies of Barbary, tributary to the Grand Signior, such as Algiers, Tanis, and Tripoly, are obliged, in time of war, to furnish vessels for the defence of the state; but they are supplied by government with provisions, ammunition, and every

thing necessary for equipping them.

As the Ottomans have no colonies to preserve, and no foreign commerce to protect; and as they neither seek for distant conquests, nor for any political influence over those projects with which Europe is continually agitated, they have no occasion for great naval forces. This empire, on one side, is at peace with all the maritime and commercial powers; and, on the other, by political intrigue, which may concern the tranquillity of nations, religious armaments never approaching the coasts of Turkey, the Porte is not in a situation to exert itself by sea to make them be respected. Such an expence would not only be a mere loss for the empire, but it might become burthensome to it, because the commanders of its vessels would suffer themselves to be seduced by opportunities, and a greediness for plunder; and its repose, and its arms, would soon or late be found at variance. This political consideration, of which all commercial nations know the value, ought, in my opinion, to engage them to agree to a neutrality in the Turkish ports, or to make the ports of the Mediterranean be refused to such nations as might come to disturb its tranquillity, and to interrupt the commerce of Europe with the Ottoman empire.

LETTERS RESPECTING BARBARY, AND THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE BEDOUIN ARABS.

BY THE ABBE POIRET.

[Continued.]

LETTER XXIV.

TO DR. FORRESTIER.

IT is very just, my dear doctor, after carrying you so long through the deserts, mountains, ruins, and towns of Numidia, that I should now conduct you to the capital; but I must forewarn you, that, on departing from *Hippo*, when we have passed

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the vast plain of *Bonne*, we must enter upon very steep and high mountains, and we shall, perhaps, meet with some of the *Ly-Ajhab* Arabs, who inhabit the defiles of *Arriah*. Let us, therefore, pass on quickly, and not stop long amongst them, for the greater

A a

part

part of them are unsubdued; and, notwithstanding our escort and our arms, should we give them time to unite themselves, we must be ruined. As night is approaching, we must be reduced to the necessity of sleeping on the rocks. Behold, say you, very gloomy forests, deep hollows, and most dismal solitudes. I allow it, and we must even expect this night to receive a visit from his Majesty.

The morning appears, let us move our tent and depart. What a magnificent spectacle! The first rays of the sun gild the horizon; day already strikes the summit of yonder mountain, while the veil of night still covers the plain! You stop astonished, and I comprehend your meaning. A large highway, and a Roman highway too, amidst these rocks! There is no reason to doubt it—this highway formerly conducted from Hippo to Cirta. We shall find it at certain distances as far as the latter place; but let us view remains still more striking. At the distance of two leagues from the *Hamman-meskouteen* we found some considerable ruins upon an eminence. This place at present is called *Annonay*. In the midst of these ruins there is a small square building, in very good preservation. A cross cut out above the door, indicates that it was probably a chapel belonging to the Christians. I found the following inscription among these ruins:

MEMMI
V. S. M. F
PRUDENS
V. A. N. XV.

I shall not ask you to turn aside again seven leagues to visit *Alleezab*, another town, entirely ruined, which is situated on the western bank of a river that bears the same name; much less shall we go to the river *Sersf*, to find there, under the name of *Seniore*, an enormous heap of stones, remains of old walls, and at some distance a large tower, the origin of which it

would be difficult to ascertain. Besides, we could not before night quit these places, which are extremely dangerous, on account of the great number of ferocious animals that abound in the neighbouring forests. They are so common that the *Girfab*, a considerable nation, who live in the neighbourhood, dare not frequent these cantons, notwithstanding the excellence of the pastures. Let us pay a visit rather to the *Welled-Brahm*, as their country is better inhabited, and not so much covered with forests. Let us pass this night still among the mountains; I promise to exhibit nature to you to-morrow in a less savage dress.

Tell me, my dear doctor, by the sight of those numerous flocks, which descend from the distant hills, and which extend a great way in the plain, and by the view of those rich crops and fertile pastures, do you not imagine that you are approaching a large city? Do you perceive here the ancient granary of the Romans? * Behold that numerous *Donare* on our left, composed of more than two hundred tents. The Arabs who inhabit it are either all farmers or shepherds, in the service of the Bey of Constantine. As they have an air of opulence, in comparison of those miserable wretches whom we met with among the *Ly-Ajsfab*, we may rest assured of being well treated. I now discover it upon the summit of yonder mountain; hail country of Jugurtha and Masinissa! hail city ever celebrated by the antiquity of thy origin, by the Kings whom thou containest in thy bosom, and by thy long wars with Rome and Carthage. But what astonishing revolution has torn thee from the power of the Romans, and rendered thee submissive to a new sect? The Caliph resides within thy walls, and rules there with despotic sway. Thou hast abandoned the religion of Christ, to follow that of an impostor, and though the Arab, thy conqueror,

* When Africa became a Roman province, it was called the granary of the Romans, on account of the abundant crops which were procured from it every year.

hath been in turn subdued by the Turk, thou ceaseſt not on that account to have Mahomet for thy prophet.

Before we approach nearer the city let us ſtop a moment, but expect not to enter it in triumph: we are about to be aſſailed with abuſe and imprecations, to be ſpit upon, and even to be attacked with ſhowers of ſtones. It is true that the Bey, as ſoon as he is informed of the arrival of ſtrangers, ſends them ſome *chiaoux*, to protect them from the inſults of the populace. But the mob are ſo inſolent, that notwithstanding the blows which they receive with ſticks from all ſides on the head and ſhoulders, we ſhall find much difficulty in penetrating to the Bey's palace. Do not imagine that we ſhall have an audience as ſoon as we arrive: the Bey will order a lodging to be aſſigned us, where we muſt remain without going abroad for three or four days, and perhaps more, until it may pleaſe his eminence to permit us to appear before him. Thus whiſt we ſtill enjoy liberty, let us take advantage of it, to view the environs of the city, and to obſerve its ſituation.

By the ſight of theſe ruins, thoſe ſcattered fragments of walls, now overturned, and theſe remains of ciſterns and aqueducts, which extend at a diſtance in the plain to the ſouth-weſt, does it not appear evident, that the ancient Cirta was much larger than it is at preſent? This is the only ſide on which one can enter the city, for the reſt of the mountain is a dreadful precipice, more than two hundred fathoms in height. At the bottom of it runs the river *Suſſegmar*, or the *Rummel*, which the ancients called *Amſage*. Advancing a few paces towards the eaſt, we ſhall ſee the *Rummel* riſe from its ſubterranean channel, and form a large caſcade; above which ſtands the higheſt part of the city: from this ſpot criminals are thrown at preſent, as was the caſe formerly. By means of ſteps cut out in the rock, one may deſcend to the river, where there is a natural vault, in which the women

wash their linen without being ſeen; but they are often much frightened by the appearance of ſmall tortoiſes, which they take for evil ſpirits.

Thus Conſtantine, defended by its ſituation, is ſtill more ſo by its excellent walls, conſtructed of a kind of black ſtone, and by a ſtrong Turkiſh gariſon, lodged in the remains of an extenſive and ancient building, ornamented with ſome reliſks of very beautiful architecture. The gates of the city, built of reddiſh ſtone, almoſt as fine as marble, and ſculptured with much taſte, equally announce it to have been the work of the ancient maſters of the world.

But the moſt ſtriking object is a bridge in very good preſervation, the arches, galleries, and columns of which are ornamented with garlands, ſeſtoons, cadeuci, and the heads of oxen. Between two of the arches, there is the figure of a woman in *bas relief*, whoſe feet are placed on two elephants, that have their trunks entwined one with another. This woman has no head-dreſs but her hair, which appears curled, and above her head there is a large ſhell. With her right hand ſhe arranges her dreſs, and ſhe caſts a ſmile of contempt towards the city. At ſome diſtance is found a very beautiful triumphal arch, in good preſervation, and other half-ruined monuments, valuable remains of the power and magnificence of the Romans. The triumphal arch is named *Caffir Goulab*, or the *Giant's Caſtle*. It conſiſts of three arches, the edges and frieſes of which are ornamented with flowers, bundles of armour, and ſeveral other figures. The pilasters, as well as the columns which ſupport the pediment, are of the Corinthian order. The interior part of the city preſents nothing remarkable. The ſtreets are ſtraight, but dirty, and the houſes are low, and without windows. The Bey's ſtables will, however, engage your attention: there you may ſee, though a little degenerated, the choicelt of thoſe Arabian horſes, which the Numidians

midians rode without bridles or saddles. The Arabs still manage horses with much dexterity, but they use both a saddle and spurs. Their saddle is a kind of seat, with a back; their stirrups are shaped like the forepart of a shoe, and their spur is a long iron spike, fastened to the stirrup, which they make to glide along the bellies of their horses. There are some of them, however, who still preserve the ancient custom of the Numidians.

The Bey's palace differs very little from the house of a private individual: the inside of the apartments is ornamented with fuseses, pistols, and saddles. This is the luxury of the country. In passing the first halls, one meets with all those who are waiting for an audience of the Bey, and in others there are crowds of beautiful young slaves, from ten to twelve years of age, who are all clothed with much elegance and neatness. They form a part of the Bey's Seraglio. Next come slaves, who, much different from those of Algiers, live here in great credit, command respect, and hold the second rank at this court. The *chiaux* occupy the first. Their duty consists in executing the orders of their despot, and above all in beheading those who are condemned to die.

The reigning Bey is a very fine man, and he receives strangers with much ease and politeness. He is not accounted cruel, though he has already ordered a great many heads to be struck off. He is crafty, political, and very greedy of riches; but notwithstanding this, he shews much magnanimity and generosity on occasions. I saw at Bonne, two years ago, a Neapolitan surgeon, who had been his slave, and who had the good fortune to cure him of a venereal cancer in his nose. For this service the sovereign was very grateful; he gave him his liberty, and retained him at his court by repeated acts of kindness. At the end of some years, the surgeon having testified a strong desire of returning to his own country,

"Thou art free," said the Bey to him, "but thy plan gives me great uneasiness; promise me at least to return in a year; bring thy wife, thy children, and all thy family along with thee; they shall be my friends." The surgeon promised that he would return; the Bey loaded him with new presents; at his request set at liberty two Italian slaves, that they might serve him during his journey; recommended him as his son to the African company, and told him, embracing him, with his eyes bathed in tears, "Go, and see thy family—go and see thy sovereign, and tell him in what manner thou hast been treated by a barbarous Prince."

The soil in the neighbourhood of Constantine is exceedingly fertile, and the ground is well cultivated, except those hills which extend towards the south, where no one ventures to live, on account of the frequent incursions of the Arabs of the desert; but when one looks from the summit of the city towards the north, there appears a magnificent prospect, formed by a great number of valleys, hills, rivers, and meads. On the east, the view is terminated by a chain of rocks, which hang over the city, and seem to contract its horizon.

The other cities of Numidia are much less considerable. They consist more of ruins than of houses, and it may be easily judged, from the number of ancient monuments, how populous this country must have formerly been. In some places the cities were as near each other, as the villages in France. It is much to be regretted, that a country so fertile, and so beautiful, should remain uncultivated, whilst the people in Europe are disputing with one another for barren wastes. I knew an Arab chief, who for a bullock gave up to the Bey of Constantine, a piece of cultivated ground, near ten leagues square.

On the east side of Constantine, towards the desert of Zaara, stands Gala, a strong and well-built city, where

where a Prince, named *Boigis*, of a very ancient Arab family, commands with absolute authority, independent of the Turkish government. Hid in Mount Atlas, protected by his situation, by good troops, and by his own courage, he governs with moderation; and his subjects are happy. Their manners, like those of their chiefs, are mild and pacific. They are rich in flocks and in corn, and are under no apprehension of their being taken away from them. Prince *Boigis* lives in close intimacy with the Bey of Constantine, whom he from time to time visits, and he is the more respected, as he is thought to be descended from the family of Mahomet. He has had some intercourse with the Christians, but he never opposed them; on the contrary he loves and protects them.

Bugia, on the coast, at the distance of thirty miles from Algiers, is a pretty large city, built upon the ruins of another that was much larger. This city is defended by three castles, one of which commands it, and the other two are situated at the bottom of a neighbouring mountain. In the vicinity of Bugia the Arabs have some mines of considerable value, that supply them with iron, which they convert into plough shares, instruments of agriculture, and other necessary utensils. The Bedouin Arabs bring to this place great quantities of oil and wax, which they sell to the Europeans; but the former are so intractable, that this commerce is seldom carried on without some cruelty being committed on their part; they almost give law to the Turkish garrison. The river *Nafava* flows on the east side of the city, where it discharges itself into the sea. It takes its source at *Jibbel-Deera*, is considerably enlarged by several streams which it receives in its way, and continues its course along Mount *Jurjura*.

Between *Collo* and *Bonne* stands *Stora*, where there is pretty good anchorage. It is thought to be the ancient *Ruficada*. This city contains some antiquities, but it is dangerous

to approach it, as the inhabitants are cruel and ferocious. Nevertheless, by wise precaution, and the help of money, they may be rendered a little more tractable.

I have the honor to be, &c.

LETTER XXV.

TO THE SAME.

I CAN at present conceive, my dear doctor, how the sailor, when secure in port, forgets past dangers, and longs for the moment of embarking again. I have for some time been a witness to a dreadful tempest, the ravages of which have been felt throughout great part of the Mediterranean. The sea swelled so much, that *la Calle* was almost overwhelmed by the waves. Sometimes, broken against the rocks, they fell down in rain, and sometimes in white foam, they inundated the place, carrying with them as they retired, walls, barracks, and fragments of rock. At other times they dashed themselves, with a horrible noise, into the subterranean cavities of our peninsula, with so much fury, that we every moment expected to have been swallowed up by them. Rain, hail, and thunder, still added to the horror of our situation. Two vessels happened then to be in the harbour, both of which perished, but the crews were saved. Another vessel, which had sailed a little before, was driven upon the coast of Sardinia, where it was lost, together with the Captain and several sailors. When I beheld the raging sea, I made a very sincere vow never to embark in order to return to France, and to renounce sea voyages for ever. A calm, however, returned, and eight days after, forgetting both the season and the danger, I embarked for the isle of Tabarca, with Mr. Peyron, the company's agent at that place. Our passage was very fortunate. We coasted along the shore, almost always within a gun shot of it, and I must confess, that I know no kind of sailing more agreeable. Sometimes enormous rocks, in large masses, precipitate themselves into the waves, and sometimes

times the waves undulate over the sand, purer than snow. At other times they cut out profound grottoes, in which, bellowing with fury during winter, they form in the fine season most delightful baths of pure and placid water. Here the view is extended over immense meads, embellished with verdure and flowers, and there the hills, clothed with woods, rise behind bare and scorching rocks. Every instant the scene changes its ornaments, and the imagination follows with rapidity the varieties of the spectacle. It passes suddenly from fear to joy, and from horror to pleasure. Sometimes peaked rocks, or others, the points of which scarcely rise above the surface of the water, suggest the dreadful picture of a ship driven to pieces among these dangerous shelves; sometimes the sight of a verdant grass-plot, or of a peaceful creek, makes you forget the fatigues of the stormy sea, and promises a repose, the sweets of which you already enjoy by anticipation.

Such was the spectacle I in part enjoyed from *la Calle* to Tabarca; and if any thing could throw a gloom over the variegated picture I had before my eyes, it was only the idea of the ferocity of the people by whom these coasts are inhabited. As in the island of Calypso, no navigator could approach the shore without falling a victim to the barbarity of the Moors, when the sea is tempestuous, and when the winds, let loose, raise the waves, and multiply wrecks, these people run in crowds to the coast, not to assist the wretched mariner, who still struggles with the billows for the remains of a miserable existence, but to profit by his spoils, and to massacre without mercy, him who already rejoices that he has escaped from the fury of the elements. Detestable cruelty, which makes the barbarous African the most odious monster in nature! Those vessels, therefore, which by the tempest are driven towards the coasts of Barbary, on the sight of this land of blood, forget in some measure the dangers of the irritated

ocean. They choose rather to trust to the fury of the waves, than to the humanity of their fellow creatures. Of all those who have been shipwrecked on these coasts, very few have had the good fortune to escape.

The first interesting object that struck my eyes was, at the distance of some gun shots from the shore, a heap of rocks, in the midst of a plain, which formed a round mount, called indeed by the Provincials who frequent these coasts, *Monte rondo*. In this place was built *Tagassa*, the country of St. Augustine. At present nothing remains of it, but some miserable ruins, on the declivity of the mount, and a number of olive trees. These remains, situated in the country of the *Nadis*, cannot be visited without running great danger.

From *Tagassa* we continued our voyage opposite to *Cape de l'Aigue*, or the *Cape of Water*, thus named because a spring of very excellent water is found here, from which several navigators often procure a supply.

Next comes *Cape Red*, which, on account of the color of the rocks that appear at its extremity, has been thus named by the Provincials.

The *Cape of Chickens*, which we doubled, received this name because the Moors often sold their fowls here to the coral fishers. The latter, however, had great reason to complain. One day, having anchored their barks in this place, the Moors earnestly pressed them to remain on shore, and to pass the night with them. The coral fishers prudently refused, and returned to their boats, which so irritated the Moors that they fired several times at them, but luckily no person was wounded.

The island of Tabarca, distant about five or six hundred paces from the main land, may be about half a league in circumference. Sometime ago a passage was formed here by a causeway, upon which people could cross on foot during a calm in dry weather, and on horseback when the sea was a little agitated; but a violent storm some days

days before my arrival destroyed this communication.

Tabarca is a very high rock, cut into the form of a peak towards the sea, and having a gentle declivity towards the land. The houses were built on the brow of this little hill. The sight here, when directed to the land, is delighted with the most agreeable prospects: fertile and pleasant hills, a beautiful meadow intersected by several rivulets, houses built in the form of an amphitheatre, a serene sky and a fertile climate, composed the prospect of the ancient Tabarcans, and rendered their situation happy.

This island was taken by Charles V. when he carried the flames of war into Barbary with so much success. By its situation he thought it very advantageous for sheltering a garrison from the Moorish soldiers, and of great utility in his expeditions upon the coasts; on this account he ordered it to be surrounded with excellent fortifications, and caused a considerable castle to be erected on the highest part of the island. These possessions he afterwards ceded to *Doria*, a Genoese nobleman, but in process of time they fell at length into the hands of the noble family of the *Lomellini*, at Genoa.

Tabarca was peopled with several Genoese families, who carried on with the Moors the same trade as is carried on at present by the Royal African Company. They erected here a number of houses, ornamented with beautiful gardens, and the fineness of the climate indemnified the new settlers for removing from their own country. Tabarca became that of their children and of their posterity, and every thing prospered till 1743, when the Tabarcans submitted of their own accord to the Bey of Tunis. Some pretend that the island had been a long time in want of provisions, through the negligence of the *Lomellini*, and others say that it was in contemplation to cede the place to the African Company, and that the Tabarcans chose rather to belong to Tunis than to France.

However, this may be, the Bey of

Tunis, when in possession of the isle, ordered all the ramparts and fortifications, as well as the houses, to be demolished, preserving only the castle, in which he placed a Turkish garrison of about three hundred soldiers. The inhabitants, men, women, and children, were carried to Tunis, as slaves, without sparing the principal people of the island, who had been the authors of this treachery, and who expected a different reward for their crime.

For a long time the Bey of Tunis was desirous of constructing a fort on the main land, to counteract that of the island; but this proved difficult, and no situation could be found for one, except behind a hill, out of the reach of the cannon of the island. It is still inhabited by about an hundred Arab soldiers. The Bey, taking advantage of a favorable circumstance to execute his first project, caused a second castle to be constructed, which commands that of the island, and filled it with Turkish soldiers; but this castle is inferior to that of Tabarca, both in strength and solidity.

Nothing now is to be seen in Tabarca but the castle, where the Turkish soldiers reside, considerable remains of ramparts and fortifications, with houses in ruins, and abundance of cisterns, &c. The Bey of Tunis, by a private treaty, has permitted the African company to keep an agent here for directing the coral fishery on these coasts. To live peaceably and alone, amidst these ruins, among a few Moors, and a most insolent Turkish soldiery, one would need to have as much prudence and philosophy as Mr. Peyron. We must not form an opinion concerning the Turks of the Levant from those who are found in Barbary. The scum of Turkey is generally collected to send recruits into Africa, on the request of the Dey of Algiers and the Bey of Tunis, whom the Grand Signior, from time to time, permits to make new levies in his territories.

No Christian dare approach these castles,

Castles, which are guarded by the Turks, for they always dread some treachery, and every examination rouses their suspicions. Whilst I was at Tabarca I saw the Aga order the soldier on duty to be punished with five hundred blows of a stick, for having suffered two Christians, newly arrived, and who were ignorant of the customs of the country, to enter the castle. A little time before a sailor had been pursued, and pelted with stones and sticks, for having advanced too near the castle in his walks. This castle, as well as the two on the continent, were entirely depopulated by the last plague, which prevailed here in 1784.

The rock of Tabarca consists of a coarse yellowish free-stone, the fissures of which contain abundance of iron and red ochre. It is found in large masses, without order and without direction. The clefts are very irregular, and often form in the stone, as well as in clayey strata, divisions almost cubical, which appear like so many stones united by a ferruginous cement. I made the same observation in the environs of la Calle, and in several other places along the coasts of Barbary. The free stone rocks, thus divided, on the first view, seem to be ancient walls built by the hands of men. It is such walls as these I imagine that the Abbè Alberto Fortis says he observed in Dalmatia, and of which he has given a view, under the denomination of *filoni simili a muraglia in riva del mare sotto Rogoniza*.*

This rock stands on a dry, clayey, fissile bottom, somewhat calcareous, containing a great deal of sand, and in several places forming hard masses, scaly at the surface. The island is almost every where covered with a thick layer of vegetable earth, exceeding proper for cultivation, but left entirely barren by the laziness of the Turkish soldiers, who inhabit the castle.

The next morning after my arrival I crossed over to the main land, to examine some old buildings, and the re-

mains of an ancient city, named *Tabarca*. It is built on the banks of the sea, partly on the plain, and partly on the surrounding hills, and, by my observations, must have been nearly a league in circumference. Nothing is to be seen of it at present but some old walls, half demolished, a few fragments of reversed columns, and a great number of cisterns, shaped like those still observed at the ruins of Carthage, Hippo, and other ancient cities of Barbary. In the middle of these ruins stands the castle of the continent, built by the Bey of Tunis, after the capture of Tabarca. It is defended by about an hundred Turkish soldiers. The *Zaine*, a pretty considerable river, washed the walls of *Tabarca*.

Some days after, in traversing the environs of this agreeable spot, I descended behind the hills of the ancient Tabarca. Wandering as chance directed, among rocks, covered with bushes, I found myself at length in a valley, the beauty and situation of which were enchanting. A stream of pure water issuing from the live rock pursued its course among the stones and the sand, while its banks were ornamented on each side with a hedge of rose-laurels, that formed above the water an arch, impenetrable to the rays of the sun. Though it was the middle of January, the ground was covered with rising verdure, and abundance of the beautiful species of the cacalia recreated me with their sweet odor. This valley formed several windings among the little hills, the aspect of which was exceedingly pleasant. I was never tired with straying over this delightful spot, and I much regretted to find that it had no inhabitants.

This, however, has not been the case always. Some rubbish, and a great quantity of the fragments of cut stone, prove to me that a polished people formerly resided here. What struck me most, and what I found it very difficult to explain was, some rocks in which several small chambers,

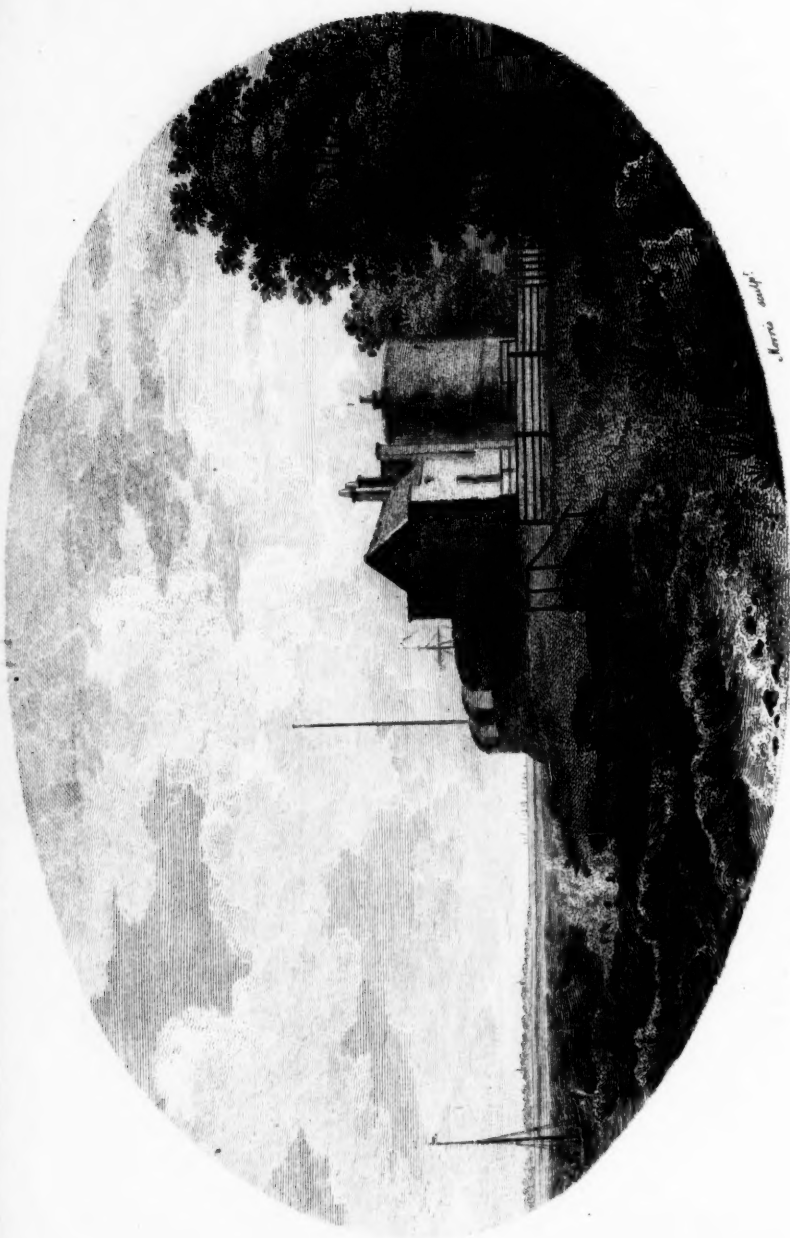
* Viaggio, in Dalmatia, vol. ii. p. 100.

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COWES CASTLE, ISLE OF WIGHT.

The vegetation was not favorable for
game, as the hills were covered with
oaks, hickories, ash-trees, oaks, hickories,
the white oak, the maple tree, a few
hickories, ash-trees, &c. I have the
following list, &c.

This a painter has not only a much more correct, but a more delightful view of the same landscape, than the common observer. To the first, by mere association, all the parts at once arranged, keep their proper places, and form a whole; whereas the latter, though he may have equal taste, for want of that corrected eye, looks at



CHURCH CASTLE ISLE of WIGHT

about four feet square, had been cut out with the chisel. The entrance of them, which was two feet square, had a great resemblance to that of a window, with embrasures, and in the back part of them there was a niche two inches deep, a foot high, and six inches broad. These openings, which I found to the number of five or six, are all situated at the top of the rock, and in some places the access to them is difficult. I in vain attempted to conjecture what might have been their use, for I could find nothing to enable me to form any certain opinion, as the interior part of them was of a dark, and almost black color. I at first imagined that they might have been intended for tombs, but their smallness and square form were entirely contrary to this idea. I thought also, that they had, perhaps, been magazines, but in this point I can advance nothing certain. I, however, observed that the opening is disposed in such a manner as to be exactly shut by a square stone which may be easily

concealed by heaps of earth and bushes. These rocks are a kind of free-stone too coarse for building, and difficult to be cut.

The pleasant and agreeable ideas which the view of these beautiful scenes excited in my mind were saddened by the dreadful picture of the ravages which the plague made in this place, and through all the kingdom of Tunis, in the years 1784 and 1785. At certain distances I found deserted tents, excellent fields neglected for want of hands to till them; the numerous nation of the *Ouled'amours* reduced to three or four tents, and the garrison of the three castles entirely destroyed, except five or six soldiers.

The season was not favorable for botanical excursions; but I observed that all the hills were covered with the same shrubs as those in the environs of la Calle; that is to say, sweet broom, ash-trees, oaks, broom, the arbutus, the mastic tree, a few barren palm trees, &c. I have the honor to be, &c.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

DULL and languid, indeed, must the eye and the heart of that man be, who can see and read the book of Nature without emotion. It would be impossible to pitch upon a land which would not afford some instruction or amusement to the contemplative or scientific mind. Objects offer, wherever we bend our course, to convince us, were it necessary, of the existence and power of a great Creator, and of the beauty and order of his works. There are few pleasures, in the pursuit of which our feelings are called forth in so lively a manner, as in travelling. Health, relaxation, and improvement, are all to be obtained by it. Expectation is awakened; and novelty and variety, so dear even to the most supine amongst us, are at hand to gratify it. Whether we climb the rude and lofty mountain for a sight of the grand features of Nature, or view her in her

more retired scenes, in our rambles through the fertile vale, in each and every situation she has her charms, and all are inconceivably enhanced when examined by a tutored or picturesque eye. It will probably be asked, what is meant by a tutored eye? The answer is short, though, perhaps, the force of the remark will be obvious to those only who have themselves, more or less, experienced the truth of it. I mean, then, that eye whose ability to observe the appearance of Nature is improved by calling in the aid of art.

Thus a painter has not only a much more correct, but a more delightful view of the same landscape, than the common observer. To the first, by use and attention, all the parts at once arranged, keep their proper places, and form a whole; whereas the latter, though he may have equal taste, for want of that corrected eye, looks at

the scene as at an assemblage of beauties, and not possessing the power to consider the general effect, the multiplicity of objects distracts, and he knows not where to fix his attention. I am aware that this reasoning may, in some instances, have been carried too far, inasmuch as even to have approached towards affectation; but the abuse and strained application of any principles will not in fact, with the dispassionate, lessen their intrinsic weight. It is an old observation, and it unfortunately remains to be a well-founded complaint, that but a very small number of our men of rank and fortune know comparatively any thing of the sweet scenery of their native land. From college they are sent to the Continent, and soon hurrying over a vast tract of country, too many loiter away their time in cities, in pursuits which tend only to enervate mind and body. Even the country seats, those palaces of our noblemen and gentry, are, for the most part, deserted; and the time is alternately spent in foreign lands, in our smoky metropolis, or in the dull round of the second-rate dissipations of a watering place.

There are few spots which, considering the size, are more worthy of attention than the Isle of Wight. It can scarcely be necessary to mention, that this island is situated nearly about the center of the southern coast of England, opposite to Hampshire, of which county it is a part; the channel which separates it is, in some places, six or seven miles across; the distance from Portsmouth to Lower Ryde is between five and six miles; from Southampton to Cowes about eleven miles. These distances are mentioned, because Ryde and Cowes are the principal ports of access to the island. It is about twenty-four miles in length, and its greatest breadth is nearly thirteen miles. The river Medina runs almost directly through the middle, and at Cowes mingles its waters with the ocean. Though the principal one, and navigable to New-

port, it is above that town but an inconsiderable stream.

A range of hills, whose sides afford rich pasturage for sheep, divides the island into two nearly equal parts. There are no where better or neater husbandmen. The soil is for the most part good, and amply repays them for the labour bestowed upon it. Much corn is exported from the market at Newport.

Cowes is supported by ship building, fishing, some little foreign trade, and a great deal of smuggling. It is a nasty sea-port town, delightfully situated, and the harbour is an excellent one. On the shore is a small Castle, of which a view is annexed. This, with Hurst, Calshot, and Netley Castles, were built by Henry VIII. partly from the ruins of religious houses. Cowes Castle serves as a pretence for paying an additional salary to the Governor of the Island; under him is an officer called a captain, and an invalid gunner who resides there. Netley is in ruins. At each of the other two, small garrisons are, I believe, kept up.

By those who are fond of excursions on the water, a few days may be well employed in coasting round the island. On the south side, the coast is for the most part, guarded by bold rocks and cliffs. To the west, the east, and the north, the shores are lower, and, what is seldom seen elsewhere, they are fringed with fine wood, nearly to the water's edge. Good boats may be hired at Cowes capable of living in almost all weathers; and as the masters and men are remarkably expert seamen, frequently employed as pilots, and consequently intimately acquainted with the coasts, these voyages are attended with little or no danger. It is true, indeed, that here, as in most other narrow channels, violent squalls often arise suddenly; but they are generally preceded by well-known signs. A dead fullen calm prevails, perhaps accompanied by a hot sunshine; not a breath of air is stirring to extend the flaccid sails of the vessel, lying like a log

log on the water. Multitudes of porpoises arise on every side. Presently a line of black is discovered, across the water, at a distance. It approaches nearer and nearer. Dark clouds roll up and keep pace with it. A roaring, at first indistinctly heard, grows more and more loud, till at length the whole violence of the partial tempest at once assails us.

— ingeminant Austri et densissimus
imber,
Nunc nemora ingenti vento, nunc litora
plangunt.

The winds redouble and the rains augment,
The waves in heaps are dash'd against the
shore,
And now the woods, and now the billows
roar.

Newport is the principal town in the island, remarkably neat, and well built, and it will be advisable for occasional visitors to make it their head quarters. In three summer days the beauties of the island may be explored, Newport will afford carriages and horses and good inns to return to at night.

Provided with a basket, containing wine, water, and cold victuals, on the morning of the first day we may bend our course eastward, towards Wooton, and crossing a small inlet of the sea, by a bridge, we continue our road through a thick wood of venerable oaks. Gaining by slow degrees the summit of a hill, we exchange an inclosed woody scene for an expanse of ocean; Spithead, with the men of war at anchor, some perhaps under sail. On our left, and beyond them, at the distance of five or six miles, Portsmouth and the harbour, with an assemblage of objects. Proceeding through Upper Ryde and Lower Ryde, two villages, the former about half a mile inland, the latter on the shore, we drive for some time by the sea side, pass Apley, a small place finely situated, belonging to a Dr. Walker, and arrive at length at the Priory, a house the property of Judge Grose, situated near St. Helen's point, on which there was once an Alien Priory of Cluniac Monks, before 1155* the

remains of which were to be traced some few years back. The Judge's is a small family house, the ground behind it descending gradually. Alighting, we may follow a walk through a thriving plantation towards the shore. Not only forest trees, but various kinds of shrubs flourish in full health and vigour within reach of the spray of the sea, and so soft is the air on this part of the island, that in some situations myrtles live through the winter exposed to the weather. A summer house on a considerable elevation above the shore commands a very wide sea view. St. Helen's road is immediately in front of it, where there were riding at anchor at one time in the course of the last war, a fleet of upwards of 300 ships, including the grand fleet, which then consisted of forty sail of the line.

A mile or two further on is Bradling, formerly a market town, now a considerable village. A creek of the sea comes up to it; from it we ascend a steep and rugged path. The Downs on the summit of the hill afford a delicious prospect. Hills and vales, farm houses and villages, with here and there

A spiry dome,
Sacred to Heaven, around whose hallow'd
walls
Our fathers slumber in the narrow house.

The valleys are divided by trees and hedge rows into meadows and corn fields, the former well peopled with cattle, and the hills half covered with sheep. Far below, to the left, on the shore, is Sandown fort, originally intended as a defence for the only place on this side the island which Nature has left unguarded. To a considerable extent to the East, the open sea forms a grand boundary to the whole. By this time, perhaps, the evening glow will add fresh lustre to an enchanting scene. A little onward we pass the land mark, and to the left hand, in the valley beneath, Knighton, an antique looking mansion, embosomed in wood, the sequestered retreat of the Bisset family.

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Even

Even should our party be fortunate in weather, the day will now be far spent. The sun, sinking apace towards the horizon, will recal the shepherd to his cottage, and the flock to the fold. We must therefore make

the best of our way to Newport, through lanes adorned on each side by hedges, interwove with a profusion of woodbines, which perfume the air with their fragrance.

[To be continued.]

OBSERVATIONS ON THE METEORS CALLED ST. HELME, IGNIS LAMBENS, CASTOR AND POLLUX, &c.

BY THE ABBE BERTHOLON.

IN the greater part of the works of the ancients, and in almost all the voyages of our navigators, mention is made of those fires, known to antiquity by the names of Helen, Castor and Pollux, and which, in certain circumstances, were observed at the tops of masts of vessels. They were considered sometimes as a good omen, and sometimes as the prelates of a storm. It is generally believed, that there is only one or two of these fires that appear on ships, but this is a mistake; for Count de Forbin saw more than thirty upon his vessel during a dreadful storm. That which he perceived on the vane of the main top gallant mast, was a foot and a half in height. Count Forbin having ordered a sailor to lay hold of this fire, a noise was heard like that of gunpowder kindled after it has been wetted, and when the vane was taken away, the light quitted it, and placed itself on the extremity of the mast.

Captain Waddel, in an account of the effects produced by lightning in his ship, speaks of some of those fires called St. Helme, which were of an extraordinary size, and says, that before the clap of thunder, several large flames of fire were seen at the summits of the top-gallant-masts. On the 9th of May, 1752, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, they were attacked by a storm, accompanied with dreadful thunder. In the middle of the tempest they saw a light, like that of a candle, on the main mast, for two nights successively. The Portuguese call this fire *corpo-santo*.

The ancients appear to have been acquainted with these fires. Pliny gives them the name of stars. "These stars," says he, "appear both at sea and on land. I have seen a light under this form on the pikes of the soldiers, who were on guard in the night time on the ramparts. Some of them have been seen also on the masts, and other parts of vessels, which emitted a strange sound, and often changed their situation. Two of these lights predicted fine weather, and a prosperous voyage, and drove away another, which appeared alone, and had a threatening aspect. The mariners call the latter Helen, but they name the other two Castor and Pollux, and invoke them as gods. These lights place themselves sometimes on the heads of men, and are a good and favorable omen."

Fires of greater or less size are observed also in different places during storms, at the extremities of the crosses on steeples, and at the summits of weather cocks, which have a certain elevation. Mr. Dalibard quotes the observations of a person who had several times remarked during storms in the night time, fires of this kind, at the point of the iron rod of a weather cock, which stood before the window of his apartment. Mr. Lomanosow observed in the time of a tempest and storm, luminous pencils, which proceeded with a crackling noise, from a bar of iron opposite a window: these pencils were three feet in length, and a foot broad.

Mr.

Mr. Sauvan, on July 22, 1783, perceived the ball on the steeple of the church belonging to the Grand Augustins at Avignon, crowned with a light, which continued three quarters of an hour, and disappeared at eleven at night. During a very violent storm, which happened on the 5th of June, 1783, at Chamberi, after an excessive heat, and which was accompanied by an abundant rain, with thunder and lightning, the heavens being obscured both by the thick clouds which covered them, and by the approach of night, and several of the clouds being highly electric, Mr. Daquin discovered one, which, being charged with a great quantity of electric matter, was placed directly above, and very near to the point of the steeple. Had the cloud been nearer, had the electric fluid been more abundant in the atmosphere, or had the bells been imprudently rung, the lightning would have fallen upon this edifice, which a conductor would have saved had the accident happened.

Mr. Lichtenberg several times observed the phenomenon of which we here speak. The first time he remarked it was on the steeple of St. James's church at Gottingen, in the month of August, 1786. "The tower of Naumbourg," says he, "has been celebrated, but at present Gottingen has one also. This tower, however, does not emit light always, and it is probably only during storms of long duration, when the stones and the roof are well moistened; besides when the electricity of the stormy clouds is positive, nothing is seen instead of a luminous pencil but a small star, and those sort of stars are not perceptible at a great distance." These phenomena would be much oftener seen, were there a greater number of observers, who, on the approach of storms, or during their continuance, would devote some time to observations of this kind.

If one is desirous of representing the phenomenon of the fire of St. Helme, and that seen upon steeples, nothing is necessary but to place an insulated iron spike under the grand conductor of an electrical machine in motion. A luminous pencil will then be observed, especially in a darkened chamber. The same effect will be produced, even if the spike be not insulated, but then the pencil will be much less brilliant.

Amongst fiery meteors are reckoned also those which the vulgar call *Will-with-a-wisp*, and *Jack-in-a-lantern*. These are of two kinds, one of which appears generally on the heads of men or of animals, and is called *ignis-lambens*; the other is that light which is observed in churchyards, and in bogs and quagmires.

The first kind of fire perceived in certain circumstances on the heads of children, women, and even of some men, as also on the manes of horses and backs of oxen, cats and rabbits, &c. was known to the ancients, as appears from the following lines of Virgil:

————— oritur mirabile monstrum:
Ecce levis summo de vertice visus Iuli
Fundere lumen apex, tractaque innoxia
melli
Lambere flamma comas et circum tem-
pora pasci.
Nos pavidi trepidare metu, crinemque
flagramentem
Excutere et sanctos relinguere fontibus
ignes.

ÆNEID, Lib. II. ver. 682.

These luminous phenomena are all the effects of spontaneous animal electricity, as may be proved by several instances of light being emitted from the bodies of certain animals, sometimes when excited by rubbing, and sometimes without any friction at all.

The second kind of fire appears sometimes, during the summer and autumn, in marshy places, and often strikes a terror into the country people, who are far from ascribing it to

to a philosophical origin. What tends to confirm them in this prejudice is, that these fires seem to follow people who fly from them, and to fly from those that follow them; and that when they take them as their guides, they often fall into ditches. These effects result from the extreme mobility and lightness of these fires, which the smallest current of air hurries along with it, according to the direction of the person who pursues the luminous body. One ought, therefore, to advance towards it, when one wishes to get from it; and on this account these lights appear to approach people who endeavor to avoid them. Besides, this fire is more capable of dazzling than of giving light in obscurity. The cause of these fires may arise from the inflammable air of marshes, from electricity, or from both united. It is well proved by experience and observation, that in marshes and marshy places, there is inflammable air; to obtain it nothing is necessary but to stir the slime in such places with a stick, and immediately a considerable quantity of it may be seen to rise through the water which covers its surface. If at that moment a candle be applied, the inflammable air instantly takes fire, and the flame will extend to a considerable distance. On this cause depend several known phenomena, which it was impossible well to explain before the discovery of gaz. Such are those observed in the neighbourhood of Lake Major, near Come in Italy, in New Jersey, in America, in Dauphiny, and in several other places. These fires, therefore, from these principles, must proceed from inflammable gaz, produced by animal and vegetable substances, reduced to a state of putrefaction in marshes, or burying-grounds; and this gaz takes fire spontaneously, or by some other causes. We may also suppose, that subterranean electricity has a great share in the production of these phenomena. If the electric fluid, as cannot be doubted, superabounds some-

times in the bosom of the earth, some of it must escape to restore an equilibrium under the form of electric pencils. This electric fire, being by its nature exceedingly rare, will appear very light, and easy to be moved, and will readily yield to the smallest force impressed on it. This explanation appears not to have been hitherto given.

Electric pencils, which issue from the surface of a charged conductor full of asperities, or from that of a metal plate, upon the superficies of which several scratches have been made, will serve to give an idea of this phenomenon. Though the electric fluid can alone produce a kind of fire in earth, which is neither marshy, nor filled with inflammable air, yet as these appearances are more common in burying-grounds, and in the neighbourhood of bogs, and of other places of the like nature, I am of opinion, that it is more proper to ascribe them to inflammable air and electricity conjointly. The inflammable gaz, escaping from the bosom of the earth, animal and vegetable substances fermenting and mixing at its surface with atmospheric air, may be easily kindled, either by the electric fluid accumulated in pyrites or some metallic particles; and sparkling in its passage to other substances, or by the electric fluid darting from the earth into the atmosphere, or from the latter to the earth.

To render this explanation clearer, I take care in my public course of lectures on natural philosophy, to exhibit the following experiment: I inject some inflammable air, by means of a full bladder, terminated at the neck by a cock, with a long pipe fixed to it, into a basin filled with soapy water. When a lighted candle is brought near the surface of the water, a slight flame is seen shining, which is so moveable, that the least breath determines its direction with the utmost facility. If one moves the hand with a certain velocity backwards or forwards, the flame immediately seems to follow it, or to fly from it.

If atmospheric be mixed with inflammable air, a detonation ensues, and it becomes incomparably much louder when the mixture is made with dephlogisticated air. I shall never forget, that having one day tried an experiment in the latter manner, though there were three hundred people in the hall, the report was so strong, that for a quarter of an hour every body was deaf, and I

was obliged to suspend the explanation for some time. Inflammable air therefore acts sometimes with electricity, in the production of several terrestrial fiery meteors, whether they be accompanied with an explosion or not; but in general, except in the case of what is called the *ignis fatuus*, or *Will-with-a-wisp*, observed in marshes, inflammable air is only a secondary cause.

LETTER TO A FRIEND ON THE PREVALENT USE OF PAINT AMONG THE LADIES.

AN ORIGINAL COMMUNICATION.

As you request it, my dear friend, I will give you my opinion on the prevailing use of paint among the ladies, with that freedom with which I usually write; but I must beg of you not to let my letter be seen either by your wife, or Miss —: for as they are not fashionable enough to adopt it, they will, perhaps, consider what I say as implying some censure upon them.

I do not mean to write a formal essay in support of this practice, which is now so very common; but will only attempt to remove a few of the prejudices which people of antiquated manners and notions yet entertain: or if their prejudices prove too deeply rooted, to set the rising generation, at least, entirely free from them.

Our insular situation, and the severe caustic writings of the moralists of the last, and of the beginning of the present century, a good deal retarded, I doubt not, the adoption of a fashion so long prevalent among our neighbours, and in which we now seem to take the lead. The *Spectator*, by a single reproachful word, struck a terror into the hearts of those ladies who wished to improve upon nature, and the term *Pia*, for a time, proved a barrier to art: but science is progressive; for a while it may be obscured, though it must at length break out, and will then shine with a renewed lustre. Universality of opinion has

been used as an argument in support of the most sublime of truths; and may not universality of practice be esteemed equally valid in support of any particular custom, especially when that custom seems to bid defiance to every attempt of wit and reasoning to suppress it? A custom which is built on the broadest basis; which may extend to every female under Heaven; which is to banish ugliness from the face of the earth; by which the old, the wrinkled, the haggard, the emaciated, may be made to appear as young and beautiful as Hebe; and which tends so much to humble the pride, and mortify the self-sufficiency of those vain females to whom nature has given fair faces: a pride which to a proverb is offensive. By these means every woman may not only equal, but far surpass them, in what is generally thought desirable. That bloom which is nothing more than the "*tincture of the skin*" is subject to a thousand accidents; the sun, the air, an improper thought, an indelicate expression, a nod, a whisper, heightens or impairs it: but the complexion which is fashioned by art, can sustain these and much greater trials, and would, perhaps, rise superior to obscenity itself. Besides, how humane and charitable! Those poor unfortunate creatures, who, together with their innocence, have lost their roseate hue, those unhappy frail ones are hid and sheltered in the

painted

painter's crown; and he must have more than common penetration who can distinguish the Duchesses from the Courtezans. The heart of benevolence has been much employed in plans for separating and secluding them from society, and by these means attempting their amendment; but surely the end is answered much better, when the *more reputable class* of women voluntarily sink themselves, in all outward appearance, to a level with them. As it is well known, nothing tends more to prevent reformation of manners than public notoriety, could any better plan than this have been hit upon? A painted face, which might have been as distinguishing a mark of a wanton as that which God fixed upon Cain was of a murderer, is now, through the kindness of women of rank, so common, as to be no distinguishing mark at all; and *they* ought accordingly to receive every token of esteem and approbation, for the asylum thus afforded their unhappy sisters!

Some have been so mean as to decry this custom, on account of the time it must necessarily take up; which, they say, should be otherwise employed. But how can women in superior life, who are exempt from all the cares and offices of lesser mortals, employ themselves better than in adorning their persons, or hiding such defects as nature may have left them? We all esteem those who improve the mind; should not some little praise be given to those who render the face more lovely? 'Tis true it has been said, that those who once paint must always continue to do so, and there may be times and seasons when it will be inconvenient; though, I must confess, I cannot allow much weight to this: as a lover, or a husband, will undoubtedly rest satisfied with a palid face at home, if his mistress, or wife, appears sufficiently beautiful abroad—just as people submit to little domestic vexations, from the comfortable hope of meeting with regard and attachment in public.

The expence is so trifling, that I have sometimes been a little surpris'd

the custom has continued so long in a country, where expence seems one of the necessary appendages of pleasure. But this, instead of weakening, certainly is a strong presumption in its favor; as it is a proof of some inherent excellence, and that it owes not its continuation to any such accidental circumstance as that.

The health, I must allow, may be injured; but that, when put in competition with so many advantages, appears beneath the consideration of a *fine lady*, whose chief aim is not length of days, but enjoyment of life: and what enjoyment can she have without the reputation of beauty? Should any little ailment be brought on, is there not the greatest room for the display of firmness, resignation, and constancy of mind, graces and excellencies which, I doubt not, those who are at so much pains to improve their faces, are very fully endowed with? as it is totally inconceivable that those who embellish the exterior so very artfully, should neglect the cultivation of the virtues, which a beautiful appearance is only meant to give a faint token of, and to which it is but subservient.

To lay the improprieties of conduct, and the levities which some fashionable women are guilty of, to the account of painting, seems to me to be carrying matters much too far, and accounting for things in too mechanical a way, as I am unable to perceive how stopping up the pores of the neck and face can prove an incentive to amorous dalliance. Had the light-headedness of the modern fair ones been the supposed effect, I might have had some hesitation; as it is not absolutely incredible, that a swimming or giddiness of brain may be thus brought on: though this seems to be making those ladies too much like machines, who are commonly allowed to be governed by impulses of their own.

But I find I am getting out of my depth, and had better leave the farther discussion of so delicate a subject to men who are more intimately acquainted

quainted with the human frame, and know better the nature of the ingredients commonly made use of than I do.

I shall only farther observe, that Jezebel, a woman notorious in scripture for painting her face and decorating her person, although she met an untimely, miserable death, appears not to have been so severely punished for any profusion in regard to those

matters, as for crimes of a very black dye; and that had she only studied to please herself, and amuse her husband, like the ladies of our metropolis when they give a foreign glow to the complexion, she might have gone to the grave, if not full of years and glory, at least without the infamy which is now ever attendant upon her name.

J. S.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE SCARABÆUS SACER.

BY THE ABBE POIRET.

THE scarabæus sacer, or sacred beetle*, was held in so great veneration by the Egyptians, that they made it the emblem of *Neitba*, or their Minerva, as Horapollo† informs us in his hieroglyphics. This insect, which they believed to be of both sexes, and to produce without copulation, was an hieroglyphic invented to represent *Minerva the Creator*, whom the Egyptians considered both as male and female. *Alian*‡ tells us that this beetle was also the emblem of a soldier, because those who went to war were accustomed to have the figure of it engraven on their rings.

This insect is very common on the coasts of Barbary, where it resides principally among heaps of cow dung. Wandering at first upon the sand in places exposed to the sun, it is only after fecundation that it seeks those retreats, where it may place in safety the valuable deposit of its posterity. For this purpose it digs a hole in a piece of dung, lays its eggs in it, and covers them with some of the same dung, which is a proper nourishment for the larvæ. Not contented, however, with having chosen a safe retreat, well provided with nourishment for them, it rolls this lump of dung for a long time on the light sandy earth, and forms by these means a kind of ball, of the size of a small orange, which be-

comes gradually covered with an earthy coat of about two lines in thickness.

This insect is indefatigable in its labor, and it enjoys neither tranquility nor repose, until it has found in the sand a place proper for depositing its burden, which it drags every where along with it, by the help of its two hinder claws; when these are tired it uses its head and its fore claws, but it soon has recourse again to its first method. If it happens to quit this ball for a moment, and if any one should take it away, it immediately becomes restless, seems violently agitated, seeks for it every where around, and never ceases till it recovers its precious burden. I have often taken pleasure in making it uneasy in this manner, and I was much surprised to find that it almost always turned towards the place where I had thrown its ball. If I carried it in my hand, the insect followed like a tame animal, and I have often been attended by several of these beetles when I took up their balls in my hand.

When this ball is sufficiently hardened, and a dry crust formed on its outside, the insect then digs a hole in the sand of from eight to ten inches in depth, where it deposits its future family, and becomes an inhabitant of that dark abode, in which it terminates its existence. It is to be remark-

* *Scarabæus sacer excutillatus, clypeo sexdentato, thorace inermi crenulato, tibiis posticis ciliatis, vertice subdidentato.* LINNÆUS.

† Book I. ch. 12.

‡ *De animalibus*, lib. X. ch. 15.

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ed, that this operation belongs only to the females, to which nature has granted for this purpose a longer life than to the males, as the latter die soon after copulating. The larvæ are hatched about the end of autumn, continue all the winter in this state, and never become perfect insects till the spring following. I have, however, several times found in the middle of winter, perfect insects among the larvæ, without being able to determine whether they belonged to the last generation, or were the authors of the new family.

It is sufficient to see this beetle at work, to comprehend the use of the different instruments with which it has been supplied by nature. Its two fore legs are broad and flat, and they

are armed at the extremity with four strong and obtuse teeth; with these instruments it cleaves, spreads, and lays hold of balls of dung, whilst its hinder legs are employed in dragging a burden much larger and heavier than itself. If it wishes to penetrate into the sand, or a ball of dung, it employs the buckler, armed with five or six teeth, which covers its head, and uses it to raise burdens or remove obstacles. During these laborious operations, its head and its antennæ are sheltered under the size of this buckler, which extends beyond its body in all parts. The two hinder legs of this insect are much longer and slenderer than those before. Their use is likewise very different, being particularly destined to hold and to drag burdens.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

ESSAI HISTORIQUE SUR LA LEGISLATION DE LA PERSE, &c. An Historical Essay on the Legislation of Persia, preceded by a complete Translation of Saady's Garden of Roses. By the Abbé Gaudin, Secretary to the Sovereign Council of Corsica. Paris, 1789. 8vo.

WHEN a people tired of long slavery are engaged in the important business of forming a new constitution, worthy of the enlightened age which gives birth to it, and of the beautiful soil that is about to be rendered more fruitful under its happy influence, it must undoubtedly be of the highest utility to trace out to them the excesses of despotism, that they may be the more induced to detest its fury. This was the motive which directed the Abbé Gaudin in the composition of this work. The extent of Persia, the stability of that empire which survived all the great powers, who have divided or laid waste the globe, its population, its

riches, and its luxury, have a necessary relation with such a kingdom as that of France. It may therefore be some advantage at the present epoch, to take a view of those salutary institutions which tended to prolong its duration. This the author has done with equal care and sagacity. His principal fault seems to be, that he has not marked with sufficient precision the epoch when he makes this legislation commence.

The *Garden of Roses*, which precedes this second part, is one of the most valuable monuments of the Arabic literature, of which Duryer, Galland, D'Herbelot and Cardonne, have only given a very superficial account. Mr. De St. Lambert has borrowed from this work several apologues, which he has ornamented and embellished with a philosophy much superior to that of Saady. Mr. Gaudin, however, gives it us entire, in order that it may be better known. Being unacquainted with the original, we cannot pretend to decide whether the translation

translation be exact: some people, however, well versed in the oriental languages, assure us, that it is done from the Latin version of Gellius, known under the name of *Rosarium Politicum*, but it is more elegant and natural. We shall here give a few extracts, proper to convey some idea of the philosophy of Saady, and of the style of the translator.

One day, whilst I was in the bath, a piece of earth dropped from the hand of the King's favorite; I immediately took it up, and said to it, Art thou musk? art thou amber? for thou perfumeest me with thy odor. It replied, I am only a bit of vile dirt, but I have for some time dwelt with the rose, and have thence imbibed some of its fragrance.

One day, I saw on the top of a house, pots full of fresh-gathered roses, which were tied together with grass. What—cried I—is this contemptible plant formed to keep company with the rose? The grass then humbly replied, why wouldst thou deprive me of the honor which I receive? I do not pretend to vie with the rose, either in beauty or smell, but we were produced in the same garden, and belong to the same master.

A certain man had a friend, who was promoted to be a minister, after which he no longer visited him. Some one reproached him on this account, and asked him what offence his fortunate friend had given him. —None, replied he, but a friend ought never to see a minister except when he has lost his place.

A son in a burying ground sat down on the tomb of his father, who had left him great riches, and addressed the son of a poor man in the following words: The tomb of my father is of marble, the epitaph is written in letters of gold, and the pavement around is of mosaic work: but of what consists the tomb of thy father?—Of two bricks, one at his head, and another at his feet, with two handfuls of earth thrown over his body.—Hold thy tongue, said the son of the poor man, at the day of judgment, before thy father has only moved the first stone with which he is covered, mine will be arrived in paradise.

We shall now quote a few of his maxims.

In vain does the worshipper of fire adore it for an hundred years; it will still consume him when he falls into it.

A man of letters, whose manners are irregular, resembles a blind person car-

rying a flambeau, with which he enlightens others, without being able to enlighten himself.

Know that the gate of joy is shut to a house, when the voice of a woman is heard without.

A dervise addressed the following prayer every day to God: Great God, have pity on the wicked, for thou hast shewn sufficient kindness to the virtuous by forming them good.

The sigh of one oppressed person is sufficient to overturn the world, &c.

The Abbé Gaudin explains, how people who had no relation with the Greeks and the Romans, have always preserved those forms, under which the first endowments of genius appeared amongst them.

Every author there, says he, must have had no other rule but his own talents, and has only obeyed a spontaneous impulse. On the contrary, in climates where human knowledge and the arts could every day advance towards perfection, by a successive improvement, the citizens collected by the government touched one another, as we may say, in all points, United together by their general interest, the affairs of the republic, those of the bar, their sports and their exercises, always gave them an opportunity of seeing and hearing one another, and a large mass of knowledge naturally resulted from this continual communication—whereas in the East families lived sequestered, and the advantages of the climate freed men from the necessity of associating together, in order to overcome the inclemency of the weather and the seasons. The women, subjected to the yoke of rigorous dependence, being banished from society, could have no influence in it. In such a state, the genius can never assume all its force, and ideas are much less abundant than elsewhere; but the fewer ideas people have, they express them with more force and energy. The imagination, always more active in proportion as there is less occasion to exercise the faculty of reasoning, is employed in varying and embellishing them, and it searches in nature for all those relations which connect them with different physical objects. Hence proceed that variety of phrases, and that abundance of images, which serve only to conceal the barrenness of ideas, under the veil of metaphors, always suited to the nature of the climate.

Under the Eastern sky, we find nothing but pearls, roses, and perfumes. In the North of Scotland, and the forests of Ca-

nada, we meet with frost, snow, and ice, and above all, the revival of nature every spring.

Want of taste in either situation is a permanent obstacle to perfection. Taste is the result of art, and of a desire to please; but can that art and that desire have birth in a country, where there is scarcely any relation but that of master and slave?

After this first dissertation, the author returns to the dervise Saady, whose productions are only small scattered, and unconnected fragments, extracted from the history and the religion of the country, and often from private life; and which always convey some lessons of morality, and are terminated by reflections, which shew for what purpose they were intended. They are a kind of system of Mahometan morality, and with respect to the art, it is the production the most universally esteemed among a powerful and enlightened people.

We shall here extract a few passages of the prose translation of the Abbé Gaudin, in order that our readers may be better enabled to judge of the style and-manner of the translator.

A caravan of merchants was stopped in Cilicia by robbers, who took from them all their riches, though they intreated them in the name of God and their prophet, to leave them at least enough for their subsistence. The wife Lockman being amongst them, one of the merchants said to him, you ought to have addressed these people, and to have inspired them with better sentiments, they would then, perhaps, have restored part of our goods. The sage replied, one gains nothing by preaching up wisdom to the worthless—the file can never brighten iron that is gnawed by rust to the very heart. What effect can advice have on a conscience hardened by crimes? Does a nail penetrate into a stone?

And a little farther in the third chapter.

I would rather be the ant that is trod under foot, than the wasp so formidable by its sting. I thank God that he has not given me power to do hurt.—An Arab of the desert walking at Balsora in

the Jeweller's quarter, told me the following tale: Finding myself one day, said he, in the desert, without any food, I expected nothing but death, when I accidentally found a small leather bag. My joy on this occasion can hardly be expressed, because I hoped to find it full of meal; but having opened it, my grief and dejection were redoubled. Alas! cried I in despair, it contains nothing but pearls.

To this collection, which will always be interesting, on account of the ingenious and striking manner in which it conveys morality, the Abbé Gaudin has joined an historical essay on the legislation of Persia. The translation, he says, of a Persian author, suggested to him the idea of giving the public a more extensive knowledge of that people among whom Saady was born, and rendered himself illustrious.

For nearly three thousand years, Persia has continued to rule in Upper Asia, and if we except Egypt and Asia Minor, of which it formerly rendered itself master, it has preserved its other possessions. The most celebrated nations have been in intercourse with it. It has seen the empire of the Greeks, the Romans, and that of Constantinople, commence and fall to ruins; and though subjected itself to several revolutions, it alone has preserved its name, boundaries, manners, and government.

On these two last parts the Abbé Gaudin has bestowed his principal attention. A celebrated magistrate, Barnaby Brisson, counsellor of the parliament of Paris, who was hanged by the Sixteen, gave a work, entitled, *De regis Persarum statu*; and from the labors of this magistrate, as celebrated by his patriotism as his misfortunes, our author says, that he derived much advantage, without, however, neglecting the relations of our travellers, and other historical assistance.

In all the ancient philosophy, we can find nothing so sublime as Zoroaster's definition of the Supreme Being.

He is, says he, the first of incorruptibles, eternal, and not created; he is not composed of parts; there is nothing like or equal to him; he is the author of every good, the sovereign disposer of all order, and of all beauty; he cannot be corrupted by presents; more prudent than all the prudent, he is the father of justice, and of equity; he derives his knowledge only from himself; he is the source of wisdom, and the sole author of all nature. But, observes the Abbe Gaudin, this was only a beautiful speculation; since this Being, endued with all perfection in art, and without activity, did not interfere, by a particular providence, in the government of the world.

However, if the metaphysics of the Persian legislator were obscure, and rather inconsistent, his system of morality, which had great influence over the actions of men, was, says the author, arranged with much more wisdom. The immortality of the soul, its distinction from the body, and its omnipresence, are every where clearly expressed in the books called *Zends*.

The case is the same with regard to the resurrection of the body, the last judgment, the state of reward or punishment reserved for the good or the bad after this life; and perhaps, in this respect, there never was a religion better calculated to restrain vice.

This religion, continues Mr. Gaudin, had also the advantage of expressing these truths under the familiar emblems of the orientals; emblems which, striking the imagination, give, as it were, a body to the precept, and render the impression of it more lasting. It was by exaggerating these images, so familiar to the Persians, that Mahomet exalted so much the enthusiasm of his first disciples.

Nothing is so simple as the worship of the ancient Persians. They had neither statues, temples, nor altars; and whilst polytheism was so easily destroyed, the attachment of these Persians to their worship survived every revolution.

Speculative holiness had no merit in the religious system of Zoroaster. Fasting was forbid to the Persians, because, according to their legislator, a

body well fed and vigorous renders the soul stronger to resist evil genii, and gives it more courage to perform good works. The only meritorious fasting, says Sadder, is to abstain from sin, and from all concupiscence.

Festivals generally terminated with public entertainments, to which the rich contributed, and to which they admitted the poor, according to this maxim, that every one has need that his actions should intercede for him with God, and there is no intercession more efficacious than alms.

The morality of this celebrated legislator was not confined to regulating the exterior actions of man; it extended even to their source. The precept most frequently repeated in the books, *Zends*, is the necessity of always preserving oneself pure in thought, word, and action. An aversion to lying and calumny, forgiving enemies, fidelity to wives, respect to children, and tenderness to parents, are all found in this morality, which preceded ours by many centuries.

It was in the sacerdotal tribe of the Magi that Persia reckoned her astronomers, her lawyers, and her physicians; but these Magi, desirous of preserving the authority which they had acquired, never communicated their knowledge to the people but with reserve, and without wishing them to become too enlightened. They would have been less circumspect with a Plato and a Pythagoras, or with any other foreign philosopher, who had visited them for the sake of instruction, for they would have had less to fear from suffering them to acquire part of their knowledge.

Being at first few in number, the Magi multiplied on account of the reputation to which they had risen. They formed almost a separate nation in the empire. History observes, that in the time of Artaxerxes, the destroyer of the Parthian empire, this prince having convoked an assembly to regulate religious affairs, found more than forty thousand deputies from the Magi. Their influence at length became so formidable, that, according

to Procopius, the princes of the dynasty of that time never mounted the throne till they had obtained their consent, which proves, according to us, that good morality alone is not sufficient to make a good government.

The following chapter treats at great length upon the administration, but the three authors who have served as guides to all those who have written of the Persians, Herodotus, Ctesias, and Xenophon, so ill agree with one another, either in the facts or chronology, that one would hardly suppose them to be speaking of the same people. It is, however, generally believed, that several of the laws and customs mentioned by Xenophon really existed.

It is very probable, says the Abbé Gaudin, that ancient Persia was at first, as Xenophon advances, a kind of republic, the prince of which, with the title of *King*, was only the first magistrate; which proves that a state of slavery was not the first among the people. To tend only to the public good, remarks our author, uncontaminated minds are necessary, which have never yet been perverted by interest or passion. It is in the *Cyropædia*, for which he endeavors to encrease our confidence, that we must seek information respecting the ancient wisdom of the Persians, which was of very short duration.

The Abbé Gaudin afterwards mentions the traces of resemblance which are found between the ancient and the new government, notwithstanding their essential disparity. On this head he makes extensive researches and observations, which do as much honor to his head as to his heart.

I thought, says he, in his preface, that this labor might be attended with some utility, when we ourselves are on the point of reforming our constitution; not that I wished to present a model. God forbid that we should go in search of ours in those countries, where despotism too long exercised its fury and its empire. On the contrary, however, to paint its excesses, is to make it more detestable; but the extent of this empire, its long duration,

its population, its riches, and its luxury, naturally have some relation with a monarchy such as ours. Salutary institutions, which tended to preserve its duration, and which despotism was forced to respect, may and must have existed there. It is doubtless of use to know them. To bring legislation to perfection, it is necessary to be acquainted with that of other nations; because, in this study, their vices, as well as their virtues, may equally serve as lessons.

ATTI DELLA SOCIETÀ PATRIOTICA, &c. *Transactions of the Patriotic Society of Milan*, Vol. II. Quarto, with eighteen cuts. 1789.

THE Royal Patriotic Society of Milan, always attentive to every thing that can contribute towards the improvement of the Arts, Agriculture, and Manufactures, present in this second volume a great number of valuable dissertations, memoirs, answers to questions, and descriptions of new machines, in order to encrease the knowledge of those things useful to society, and the conveniences of life. What seems at present to be, and towards which we look forward, the desires of man in a state of civilization, and the prevailing study of the eighteenth century, is the principal object of the labours of this Society. The difference between the works created by genius, and those which turn upon agriculture and the useful arts, fully justifies the apparent slowness with which these volumes seem to be published. In works of genius, a lively imagination and constant study in consulting Nature soon discover the true and beautiful which the author seeks, and which he can immediately communicate to the public; but in agriculture and the arts, it is necessary to consider the object under a great number of aspects, to examine it at different epochs, and to compare it under all its circumstances. Things here are not at the disposal of man: on the variety of the seasons, the arrival of a meteor, or the birth of an insect, the result of all experiments sometimes depends; but these incidents

dents may ever prevent experiments from being attempted or repeated, as the return of favorable circumstances may not happen in the course of many months, and perhaps of many years.

The present volume is divided into two parts, the first of which comprehends fourteen chapters, the subjects of which we shall give in as concise a manner as possible.

The first chapter contains the eulogies of several members lately hurried away by death from the sciences and the arts, which they employed to second the patriotic views of the society. In the second, are exposed the cares of the society for what concerns the health of man, after which, there is an account of a disease, called the *falling of the hair*; observations on the pharmacopoeia of the poor, the culture of rhubarb, and the waters, both mineral and stagnant, in the neighborhood of Pavia, as well as upon kitchen utensils; the burying of the dead, and public instruction—All objects that tend to the happiness of mankind; besides a method to facilitate the passage of barks, with their masts and rigging standing, under bridges.

The third chapter is destined to agriculture in general, and to various utensils relating to it. Afterwards follow some observations on the climate of the Milanese; the culture of broom, and this subject is terminated by the description of a machine for freeing ground from stones, and separating gravel from pebbles and pebbles from gravel.

The fourth chapter is consecrated to grain, from the choice of seed to the time when it is made into bread. After this we find an account of the different kinds of grain, the manner of preparing and sowing them, of planting, and sickles for reaping, of the manner of threshing, and machines used for that purpose. The next objects are windmills, the manner of making bread, and instruments proper for managing the paste. The climate of mountainous countries not being favorable to wheat, it is proposed to substitute Siberian barley in

its room, and likewise potatoes, from which an agreeable kind of bread may be obtained, which will keep better than that obtained from corn.

In the fifth chapter the academy treat of vines: their first object was the destruction of that species of beetle which attacks them. They give the natural history of this insect, and the method of extirpating it from vineyards, as well as other kinds of insects which are equally pernicious. In short, they prescribe a well known remedy to free casks from the bad smell they acquire by mouldiness, which consists in pouring a certain quantity of quick lime into them.

The sixth chapter is employed on oils, a very essential object, if we consider them as the aliment of flame, as a seasoning for meat, and sometimes even as a medicine, or in short, as an article useful in the arts and the sciences. The academy proceed to those oils which are or may be extracted from different kinds of seeds. In speaking of those of the pumpkin, they demonstrate that they are much more productive than those of lint; they are used for seasoning certain dishes which are made cold, and by employing the oil for lanterns, besides that it gives a clearer light, it has also the advantage of lasting longer, for while an ounce and a quarter of linseed oil is consumed in six hours, a like quantity of pumpkin oil lasts nine.

In the seventh chapter is related the different methods of watering, either natural or artificial; and an account is also given of the making of cheese. In the first place, there is a description of a plow adapted to meadows, as well as of a waggon, which having rollers instead of wheels, if it is not easier conducted over stony roads, may be useful in meadows, to roll the soil and the grass. The quality of the grass which requires watering is next examined. And lastly, cheese, as being a commodity highly useful to the commerce of Austrian Lombardy, has also engaged the attention of the society.

The eighth chapter gives an account of what improvements have been made

made with respect to flax and hemp. It begins with the former, and the method of cultivating and manufacturing it till made into cloth. The society seem to bestow much attention upon the flax of Livonia, vulgarly called *Riga flax*, which in fineness and length far surpasses the ordinary flax of March and April. A number of experiments are here mentioned, which have been made on the flax and hemp of China. The lupin (*lupinus albus*) is a plant abounding in filaments, which ought not to be cultivated merely with a view of making thread, for being cultivated for another purpose, a considerable advantage may be derived from its flax before the stalk is condemned to the flames or the dunghill. The method of preparing the part intended for spinning, consists in macerating it, in separating the rind from the woody substance, and in rendering it as soft, strong, and fine as possible: on each of these articles the society give the best precepts. Though the common method of beating flax be well known, the society, however, propose a machine for that purpose, which appears to be the least destructive to the flax, the most useful to the workman, and at the same time the most economical. They likewise give a description of a comb variously modified, as well as of some small wheels for spinning. The method employed in large manufactories for making broad cloth is very useful, but two men are necessary to throw the shuttle from the one side of the web to the other: the society, therefore, explain in what manner one man may do it, and in half the time. The society also are acquainted with a very ingenious method of covering thread with silk, which may be highly useful, as it unites elegance to economy. Lastly, they give a very easy process for bleaching thread and linen cloth, and by which it may be completely whitened in the space of a week.

The ninth chapter turns upon silk. It begins by the culture of the mulberry tree, and then proceeds to the

breeding of silk worms, the spinning of silk, the manufacturing of it, and several other particulars respecting that valuable substance. The society also suggest a very plausible method of making hats of a mixture of hair and silk.

The tenth chapter treats of dying. It begins by a long list of all the herbs useful for that purpose, presented by the Abbé Vitman, with figures, and descriptions of them, which are of great advantage in a country where the vulgar names of plants always vary, and where artists besides are not acquainted with the Linnean names. They tell with what success the indigo of Carolina is cultivated in Europe, and make some observations on the dying of silk yellow, the dying of hats, and the effect produced by the selenites of the waters of the Milanese in dying. This chapter concludes with an account of the manner of cultivating fustic and madder, and of the art of taking out spots from cloth, and of restoring faded colors.

The eleventh chapter treats on the manner of preparing skins and hides.

The twelfth on the management of bees:

And the thirteenth, contains a description of several machines relating to the arts; such as a pump for raising water, a copper-plate printing press, and cylinders for forming metal plates.

The fourteenth chapter treats of mineral productions, and different kinds of earth that may be used in manufactures, such as turf, salts, &c.

The second part of this collection contains such dissertations as have gained prizes; and memoirs presented to the society, which they thought worthy of being published, either whole, or by extracts. We shall only give the titles of them, referring our readers for farther satisfaction to the work itself.

An extract from a dissertation on improving the vines of Lombardy. A dissertation on pruning mulberry trees. Extract from a dissertation on the scarabeus. A letter on the *chrysalis*

culio bacchus. Analysis of milk and its effects. Dissertation on manuring land. Account of a dissertation on giving more force to manure by means of urine. Memoir on thread made from white nettles. Historical and Economical Memoir on watering the plains of the Milanese. Account of a machine for kneading, used in the bakehouses at Genoa. Account of two machines for forming the paste. Account of a machine for freeing land from stones. Instructions respecting the method of making thread from the stalks of lupins. Descrip-

tion of a bee-hive. State of the experiments made to know the most economical manner of constructing furnaces in manufactories for spinning silk. Observations on bees. Memoirs on the advantages of the common *palma Christi*.

Those who peruse this valuable volume, will easily perceive that few collections of the kind comprehend so many interesting objects, and articles so useful to many classes of people, as this work; for which we are indebted to the indefatigable care of the patriotic society at Milan.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

MAMMUTH; or HUMAN NATURE DISPLAYED ON A GRAND SCALE, in a Tour with the Tinkers into the inland Parts of Africa. By the Man in the Moon. 2 vols. 12mo. Price 6s. in Boards. Murray. 1789.

THIS whimsical publication is addressed, by the Man in the Moon, like his Travels into the Lunar Regions, (which have been well received in this terrestrial globe) to those who unite a turn for speculation with a taste for wit and humor. But as there are more readers who love to laugh than to think deeply, our author is by far more copious in his pleasantries than in his lucubrations.

The chief object that he has in view in the philosophical part of his work, which is seasoned and relieved throughout by innumerable flights of fancy, of the most odd, extravagant, and ludicrous kind, is to prove and illustrate "how much mankind are governed by prejudices of education—Men, and nations of men, see things in a manner peculiar to themselves. The same object presents itself under different appearances to the eye of the observer, according to the medium through which they are seen, and the point from which they are surveyed. The true relations of things are conse-

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quently to be discerned only by viewing them in all possible lights. It was only by taking a survey of all imaginable hypotheses, that philosophy at last discovered the true system of the world; in contemplating which the astronomer quits his stationary situation upon our globe, transports himself to the centre, and observes the heavenly bodies from a point that is to be reached only by the imagination. In like manner, human nature is then most thoroughly displayed, when it is seen in various situations, and when the peculiarities of every tribe and nation of men being set aside, we view human kind from the centre of that which remains common to all. It is the object of this tour, to illustrate the varieties of human nature, to display some of its general principles and propensities, on a grand scale, and exhibit them when pushed into consequences to which they fairly lead, when there is an opportunity of carrying them to their full extent.—The real nature of all sentiment and passion is best understood, when they are magnified to extravagance by the microscope of enthusiasm."

The Man in the Moon then, agreeably to these ideas, in viewing the differ-

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rent ways of men, and modes of thinking, contemplates them as they are seen by the eye of an intelligent gypsy, who ranges freely over the whole world, without being attached to any particular country. He afterwards views human nature through a medium more extraordinary; being accidentally carried away by stealth from the gypsies into the central parts of Africa, where he lives for some time, and converses with men and women of antediluvian size and longevity, distinguished by the name of *Mammothians*, from the monstrous animal *Mammoth*. The species of this huge creature, which is as much larger than an elephant as an elephant is larger than a horse, is not, if we credit our traveller, extinct, as has been supposed. He flourishes in the interior parts of Africa, and is used by the gigantic and sage Mammothians in the same manner as a horse in Europe, or a camel or dromedary in Asia.

In the central parts of Africa, says the Man in the Moon, untrod by the foot of Abylinian Bruce, and which it never entered into the heart of the lying Munchausen* to conceive; as I doubled one of the projections of an abrupt and rugged mountain, I was met, full in the face, at the small distance of about two or three hundred yards, by a gigantic, black, and woolly-haired Hierophant, riding stark-naked on a monstrous Mammoth. He waved before his visual orbs somewhat that in appearance, as well as in size, resembled the foremast of a ship, and hummed, as he moved slowly on, certain articulate sounds, which I had for some time conceived to be the howling of the wind amidst the clefts and incurvations of the mountain. Though struck with horror, and a strong desire to make my escape, I felt myself powerfully attracted by some physical impulse towards the jaws of the Mammoth, into which, if I had once fallen, I would never have returned, either dead or alive, to the green surface of the foodful earth, at least by the same way that I entered. If the sympathetic reader, alarmed for my safety, wishes to know for what end I threw myself into a situation so full of danger, and by what means I escaped it, I will

immediately proceed, by a detail of events, to gratify a curiosity which I consider as a very great compliment.

He now proceeds to deduce his own story from the point where he was first initiated in the mysteries of the gypsies, with whom he travelled far and near, in the character of their doctor or physician. In this part of his tour we meet with a great deal of lively satire on different classes of people: men of rank, politicians, authors, physicians, ladies of quality, old maids, &c. &c. The maxims by which the gypsies conducted themselves in their vagrant life, and by which they predicted fortune, and performed other moral miracles, are unfolded, and a great variety of odd and humorous incidents are related. For example:

Near this place (Cockermouth) a fortunate accident happened, which procured a very favourable introduction to our company into the north of England. In a great chief's house, while the master was from home, on the grand business of canvassing for elections, we were kindly received by the servants, who, notwithstanding the vigilance of a crabbed old steward, found means to entertain us for a whole fortnight. We were dispersed in the day time in coal mines, and when it began to be dark, we were received through a private door into an outer-house, where we generally remained from nine or ten o'clock to one or two in the morning, when we crept into our holes again, well loaded with all kinds of necessary refreshments. After this intercourse had been carried on for some days, the coachman, who had no doubt discovered the distinguished rank of my partner and myself, invited us to pass a night in one of the empty stalls in the stable, where he had taken care to provide abundance of fresh hay, with horse-clothes, instead of blankets. He himself, so early as twelve o'clock, shewed us our bedroom, and having carefully looked over the whole stable, according to custom, carried off the light for fear of accidents, and locking the door, put the key in his pocket, and walked home. No sooner did our host retire, than up jumps a large monkey, called the Man of the Woods, with a whip in his hand, on the back of

* The epithet of fabulous is applicable only to such fictions as have a certain degree at least of unity or design.

one of the saddle-horses, and lashing him most unmercifully, rode the animal for hours together, and then placing the whip where he found it, retired in the morning to his cave. My gentleman, who had a taste for variety, did not confine himself, as I afterwards found, to one horse, but roamed, as the whim struck him, from one horse or mare to another, over the whole stable; so that now one of the creatures was all in a sweat, and bore marks of the lash in the morning, and now another. All inquiries into the cause of this had proved vain. The coachman and grooms, the gardeners and others, with the curate at their head, had often watched in the stables to no purpose; for so long as they were present, the Man of the Woods was too cunning to stir from his hiding-place.

It is a maxim of the gypsies never to report any thing they hear or see, especially in great families; because the connexions and relations of things are so complicated and various, that the simplest fact proclaimed might prove detrimental to some one or other. It was a mark of profound wisdom and sagacity in the Lord Treasurer Oxford, that he knew when to hold his tongue. In this he was not a whit behindhand with the gypsies, though I very much doubt whether, with all his knowledge of books, and acquaintance with men of letters, he received so good a political education as that in which the gypsies are bred from their very cradles: for there is a great difference between that attention which is paid to maxims taught at schools, and that which is shewn to maxims on whose immediate and unremitted application men depend for immediate subsistence. We studied to give no offence, but to gain the good-will, not only of every human creature, but of the very domestic animals in great families. Had we revealed the pranks of the monkey, even that creature might have contrived to do us a mischief. But, even without any dread of the monkey, it was a law with us to be silent on all occasions, however frivolous, lest by indulging an habit of talkativeness, we should stumble on something that, by being injurious to others, might prove detrimental to ourselves, and by too much speaking lose our reputation for knowledge. No, no. It was not our business to bring an impeachment against the Man of the Woods, though we laughed heartily at his tricks among ourselves. We played a deeper game. After we had loitered four or five days about this palace, we led on the conversation to the beauty and to the variety of the Chevalier's stud, and were of course informed, that scarcely one night passed in which some one or other of these generous crea-

tures was not almost ridden to death by some evil spirit, or incubus. Hollybush, mountain ash, and red thread, with a thousand other exorcisms, had been tried in vain; inasmuch that the Chevalier entertained thoughts of pulling down his princely stables, and building new ones fast by the side of an old decayed chapel, and, for the greater safety, even to encroach a little on the consecrated ground.

I boldly undertook to exorcise the devil. I was assured, that a protection, and even encouragement, to stroll throughout the whole county of Cumberland should reward so great and good an action. It was now reported by the servants to the land steward himself, that the gypsey doctor, whom they confessed they had privately entertained, had undertaken to exorcise the evil spirit that haunted the stables. The land steward chid them for their audacity, but gave me leave to make a trial of my skill and power. He winked at the residence of the gypsies, so near the hall (so the noble seat was called) who now crept out of their holes, and resorted even to the environs of the kitchen.

There is a fungous substance formed by the foam of the sea, and the influence of the sun and air, the most subtle of all chemical menstrea, well known to the vulgar on the coasts of Scotland, under the name of *sea-fyke*. This substance, dried and pulverized, forms a pungent powder which possesses a strong power of pricking and blistering, thence denominated *sea-fyke*, because slipped by mischievous boys, into the small clothes of their comrades, it makes them fidge, or in the Scotch dialect, *fyke*. I quickly provided myself abundance of this substance, and scattered it for several nights on the backs of the horses. The monkey, by the agitation of his posteriors, when he went to take his ride, gave full efficacy to the medicine, which blistered and afflicted him very severely. He soon gave over his tricks, and became afraid even to come near an horse, or to look him in the face. Several nights had now elapsed, and no harm had happened to the horses. I declared that the devil was now exorcised, and that he would no more appear in the stables; adding, that I would return within eight days, to see whether there were any new complaints. I received five guineas from the land steward, with assurances that if I would do so, and that the miracle should hold, I should receive other five. I sprinkled the horses backs again with the powder, and retired with the rest of our company to the environs of Whitehaven, where our reputation waxed greater and greater every day. At the end of eight days I returned to the hall, where I found all well. I received five guineas more, according to promise,

with farther assurances of being more liberally rewarded by the Chevalier, when he should return from Yorkshire. I slept in the stable at my own desire, as usual, although I had an offer of a good bed in the house. And, lest ease should recant vows made in pain, I administered in a sweet cake, which I gave to the monkey, a poison, that secured my miracle, by putting an end, in the course of a few days, to his existence. I returned to Whitehaven, where I was secretly sent for, and consulted by the first people in the town on every subject. I had begun to entertain thoughts of settling here, in the character of a professed conjurer, when I received a letter from the land steward, addressed "To the Doctor of the Gypsies, at the Corn-kilns, on the left-hand of the road as you begin to enter into the town of Whitehaven."

"SIR,

"The Chevalier has returned in bad humour from Yorkshire, where matters have gone very cross to his inclinations. Being informed that the devil was driven from the horses, he seemed well pleased, and said, that you might freely range over all this county. But being told that his friend, the monkey, was dead, he swore that it had assuredly been your enchantments that had killed him, and that he would have been sooner d—n'd than purchase the safety of a few brute beasts at so dear a rate. I am sorry to inform you farther, that whenever he can light on you, he has resolved to shoot you. He is a great man for fighting, and has had very many duels. I would therefore advise you, as a friend, to make the best of your way out of this neighbourhood, being your well-wisher.

A. C."

I did not know whether to be vexed, or to laugh at this strange epistle. But being assured by every body whom I consulted on the subject, that the Chevalier was no better than a furious madman, we judged it prudent to decamp.

After a great variety of adventures with the gypsies, from many of which he takes occasion to philosophize briefly on the conduct of the passions, and the general œconomy of life, he is sent with his female associate to represent the king and queen of the gypsies for Great Britain, at a congress of gypsy kings and queens at Tunis. The singular conversations,

laws, and morals of the gypsy race, are here unfolded, and a great deal of ingenious and satyrical observations are made, somewhat in the style of Dr. Mandeville, in his *Fable of the Bees*, on the errors and follies of men who live in fixed habitations.

Our traveller, having described the manner in which the days of the great feast of the gypsies, or *Ram-mysoul-Gumshion* were spent, gives the following account of the manner in which their gypsy-majesties dined.

All the kings and queens brought what was peculiar and most excellent in their different countries, and gave them into the pantry or buttery, a wooden house, with large lattices, built in one day for the purpose. From thence they were brought forth by the great officers, and spread on large leaves on the lawn; and to the whole was added the fresh provisions from Barbary; so that never was there a feast in which there was, at once, such profusion and such variety. To dine with the Lord Mayor of London, in the Egyptian hall, is only doing penance, in comparison of feasting with the assembled Egyptian kings. Not Solomon in all his glory, though silver was nothing accounted of in his days, with all his ships from Elath and Eziongeber, that brought him gold, and apes, and peacocks, could command such a banquet; nor Ahasuerus, revelling with jolly companions, and wine and women for forty days. And how could it be otherwise? since the rarest delicacies of all countries were brought together, and magnificently displayed on the green lap of our common nurse, foodful mother Earth, older than the hills, and yet, as appeared from these proofs of fecundity, not the worse for the wearing. Such an infinite variety of natural curiosities, which set off the nature of each other by comparisons that struck the eye without fatiguing the understanding, might be called a museum rather than a feast. It was such a banquet, that had it been set before the Royal Society of London, who eat only as a duty, that they may thereby prolong their valuable lives for the purpose of making useful discoveries, all appetite for food would have been lost in the desire of knowledge; and they would have instantly begun to physiologise on the splendid profusion of nature. Not so the gypsies. Reclining on the flowery carpet spread by the hands of Tellus; they attacked the viands with vigorous appetites and cheerful countenances. The pretty

pretty damsels, their attendants, partook of the feast at the same time with their mistresses, and occasionally handed the jocund cup.

The Man in the Moon, after the breaking up of the Congress, falls into the hands of wild Arabs, who carry him as a slave into the mountains of Ughela; from whence, however, after living for some time in a most humiliating state, he makes his escape, and is picked up as a curiosity, by the Hierophant already described, who carries him behind him on his *Mammoth*, through a fine and fertile vale, in the widely-extended regions of Mammuthia, over which vale he presided as an elective king, to his royal residence, which was a kind of nest formed in a grove of trees, on the summit of a lofty mountain. Every vegetable and animal production in Mammuthia is on a large scale, and the turn of thinking, and the modes of life of the inhabitants, in the highest degree singular, being in many instances the very reverse of ours, and yet such as are made to appear by our traveller extremely natural and reasonable.—Amidst the oddest and most extravagant fancies, he introduces many particulars that seem almost as extravagant, which are, nevertheless, realized at this day, in some parts of the world, or recorded in ancient history. In the course of conversation between the Man in the Moon, and the Hierophant, who entertains many of the notions of the Pythagorean philosophers, Lord Monboddoo is introduced, of whose *nostrums* and character our author gives a very just account in a very humorous manner. This account has been extracted for the amusement of the public, in a great number of our public prints.

The brutality of war, and the true situation and character of a mercenary soldier, whether officer or private, are well painted in the following passage.

As to the mode of conducting war, from its first commencement to its conclusion, here it is. When any difference arises

between two nations, who, it is needless to say, are commonly neighbours, the first step is an appeal to the doctors. There are a kind of Rabbis, or Professors of Moral Philosophy, comprehending all religious and moral duty, from that which a man owes to his cat at his fire-side, up to the most abstracted notions in natural religion, and the most important question in the law of nations. An equal number of doctors, chosen on both sides, meet, at a fixed place on the confines, where they protract their debates on the points in dispute for days, weeks, and even months. When they cannot, by mutual concession, settle matters among themselves, which they very seldom can, other doctors are sent for from other nations, by whose mediation and authority all disputes are compromised in an amicable, at least in a peaceable manner. But when good agreement is not to be restored either by argument or authority, then an appeal is made from the Doctors to the Dogs, that is, from reason to brutal force.

War being proclaimed, the armies are called from their cantonments, disposed in garrisons, or marched to secure passes in the frontiers. Magazines are formed, and stratagems laid for intercepting convoys. In short, all the great operations of war are performed in the same manner as in Europe, with this difference, that the only weapon of war that is at all employed, is the living jaw of a dog armed with a set of strong teeth. No gunpowder! no mines, countermines, batteries! no firing with guns, great or small! no pushing with pike, spear, or bayonet! no fighting with the sword! the officers direct and encourage their dogs; but to action of any kind themselves they do not proceed: this would be deemed altogether monstrous and inhuman, and utterly below the dignity of human creatures. When I described to the Mammuthians the manner of carrying on war in Europe: when I told them that a single man or woman, whether from an ambition of conquest, from personal disgust, or the mere languor of inoccupation, could call thousands and hundreds of thousands of men together by the breath of their mouth, and engage them, armed not only with the lethal point of iron and edge of steel, but with the thunder of heaven and the fury of hell, like so many dogs, in the most fierce and bloody contests: when I told them that the most generous spirits amongst us gloried in this employment, and that military skill and valour was the surest road to acceptance with our ladies, popularity with the multitude, and favour with kings, they from that moment began to speak of the *little red monkeys beyond the belts*, not as formerly, with a kind mixture of sympathy

pathy and laughter, but with extreme aversion and contempt; and this circumstance determined me to make my stay among them as short as possible; for I plainly perceived that they now regarded me rather as a dog than as a man. In reality, if the truth must be confessed, the life of a mercenary soldier, whether officer or private, is not a life of honour; and the splendor that is diffused around it, by the illusion of imagination and the power of habit, is one of the most striking instances that has yet occurred in the ever-varying scene of human affairs, of the force of prejudice. "For one MAN," said a Mammuthian to me, "to set another MAN a-fighting, whenever he chuses to cry YARR,† and to insult him with such exclamations as *Well done, Gripe-fist! Well done, Teaver!*" Why, this is to consider him as a creature of a different species; it is as if a sheep should in the midst of his fold "put on the nature of a tyger." It is fit that I take notice here of the great respect that is paid in all Mammuthian governments to personal rights, and the dignity of human nature. The idea that constantly occurred to the Mammuthians, whenever I described any act of despotism, was what has just been mentioned, "That it was considering men as beasts, and not as human creatures."

OBSERVATIONS made on a TOUR from BENGAL to PERSIA, in the Years 1786—7, with a Short Account of the Remains of the celebrated Palace of Persepolis, and other interesting Events. By Wm Francklin, Ensign on the Hon. Company's Bengal Establishment, lately returned from Persia. Cadell, 1790. 8vo.

PERSIA, notwithstanding the conspicuous figure it makes in an-

cient history, and even in modern times, under the reign of a Schah-Abbas,* and a Kouli-Kan,† is so little known to Europeans at present, that any information respecting it, or the manners and customs of its inhabitants, must be a high gratification to those who, deprived of the exalted pleasure of surveying foreign nations on the spot, wish to indemnify themselves for that loss, by perusing authentic accounts of them, published by intelligent and ingenious travellers; who, braving every danger and difficulty, and prompted by a noble and laudable curiosity, communicate the result of their observations to the public. Except the kingdom of Thibet, there is no country in the immense regions of Asia, with which we are less acquainted; and though the late Jonas Hanway, Esq; and Mr. Bell, as well as Mr. Niebuhr and some others, have given us a good deal of information respecting it, yet they have omitted many things that want of time or opportunity prevented them from being acquainted with.

The author of the present work being a supernumerary officer in the Bengal establishment, was desirous of employing his leisure time by improving himself in the Persian language, as well as to gain information concerning the history and manners of the nation. For this purpose he obtained a furlough, and having had the advantage of residing eight months at Shirauz, and of being domesticated with the natives, he was enabled to

† The war word in Mammuthia.

* Schah-abbas, surnamed the Great, of the race of the Sophis, mounted the throne in 1586. He retook Ormus from the Portuguese, who had made themselves masters of it in 1507, conquered Candahar, and reduced several important places in the Black Sea. He drove the Turks from Georgia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, and from all the countries they had taken from the Persians, beyond the Euphrates. This Prince was preparing for greater exploits, when he died about the end of the year 1628, after a reign of forty-four years. This conqueror was the restorer of the State by his arms, and the support of it by his wife laws. He began by destroying a militia as insolent as that of the Janissaries in Turkey, and this suppression gave rise to an absolute despotism, which Schah-abbas sometimes abused; but he knew how to unite with his oppressive government many views of public utility.

† Kouli-Khan, celebrated by his battles with the Turks and his expedition into the Mogul empire, and conquest of the capital, in 1739, when he carried away the Emperor's throne, and other riches, to the value, as is said, of one hundred and twenty-five millions sterling.

learn many particulars, which no other European traveller ever had an opportunity of knowing.

We shall select a few detached passages from this work, as specimens of the author's manner. Being always ready to pay respect to the fair sex, we shall begin with that amiable part of the creation.

The women at Shirauz, says he, have at all times been celebrated over those of other parts of Persia for their beauty, and not without reason. Of those whom I had the fortune to see during my residence, and who were mostly relations and friends of the family I lived in, many were tall and well shaped; but their bright and sparkling eyes was a very striking beauty; this, however, is in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eyebrows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called *surma*), which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luitre. The large black eye is in most estimation among the Persians, and this is the most common at Shirauz. As the women in Mahomedan countries are, down to the meanest, covered with a veil from head to foot, a sight is never to be obtained of them in the street; but from my situation, I have seen many of them within doors, as when any came to visit the family where I lived, which many did, directed by their curiosity to see an European, understanding I belonged to the house, they made no scruple of pulling off their veils, and conversing with great inquisitiveness and familiarity, which seemed much gratified by my ready compliance with their requests, informing them of European customs and manners, and never failed to procure me thanks, with the additional character of a good natured *Perrin* (the appellation by which all Europeans are distinguished). The women in Persia, as in all Mahomedan nations, after marriage, are very little better than slaves to their husbands. Those mild and familiar endearments which grace the social board of an European, and which at the same time they afford a mutual satisfaction to either sex, tend also to refine and polish manners, are totally unknown in Mahomedan countries. The husband, of a suspicious temper, and chained down by an obdurate and persevering etiquette, thinks himself affronted even by the inquiry of a friend after the health of his wife. Calling her by name, is never allowed of; the mode of address must be, "May the mother of such a son, or such a daughter, be happy; I hope she is in health." And none, except those of the nearest kin, as a brother, or uncle, are ever allowed to

see the females of the family unveiled: it would be deemed as an insult.—Thrice happy ye, my fair and amiable countrywomen, who, born and educated in a land of freedom, can, without violating the laws of propriety, both give and receive the benefit of social intercourse, unimpressed by the baneful effects of jealousy! Rejoice that these blessings are afforded you!—which have inculcated the sentiments of liberality and politeness, and which still contribute to enhance the value of society, and to secure you a permanent and unalloyed felicity!—The Persian ladies, however, during the days of courtship, have in their turn pre-eminence; a mistress making no scruple of commanding her lover to stand all day long at the door of her father's house, repeating verses in praise of her beauty and accomplishments; and this is the general way of making love at Shirauz; a lover rarely being admitted to a sight of his mistress, before the marriage contract is signed.

On the superstition of the Persians he says,

The Persians universally have a fixed belief in the efficacy of charms, omens, talismans, and other superstitious. Besides what they have received since their conversion to Mahomedanism, they have in general retained all that their ancestors before practised. Indeed, the only difference is, that what was before authorized and commanded by the Magian religion, has been subsequently allowed by the religion of Mahomed. They are, of all people, the most addicted to the idea of fortunate or auspicious days and hours, the *dies fasti* and *nefasti* of the Romans; and even on the minutest and most trifling occasions will seek for a lucky moment. Going a journey can never be performed without first consulting a book of Omens, each chapter of which begins with a particular letter of the alphabet, which is deemed fortunate or inauspicious; and should they unluckily pitch upon one of the latter, the journey must of course be delayed until a more favourable opportunity. Entering a new house, the putting on of a new garment, with numberless other common and trifling occurrences, are determined by motions equally absurd and frivolous. In their marriages they pay the strictest attention to this point; a lucky hour for signing the contract, and another for the wedding-day, being esteemed absolutely necessary to the future happiness of the intended couple. Those also who are in good circumstances, generally send for a Muunjim, or astrologer, at the birth of a child, in order to calculate his horoscope with the utmost exactness.

To

To a man they have their Talismans, which are generally some sentence from the Koran, or saying of their prophet Ali, written either upon paper, or engraved upon a small plate of silver, which they bind round their arms, and other parts of the body; but those of higher rank make use of rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones. The women of condition have small silver plates of a circular form, upon which are engraved sentences from the Koran; which, as well as the Talismans, they bind about their arms with pieces of red and green silk, and look upon them as never-failing charms against the fascinations of the Devil, or wicked spirits (whom they call Deebes), and who they say are constantly roaming about the world, to do all the mischief in their power. They are equally absurd in their ideas of the heavenly bodies, at least the middling and lower class of people, particularly in respect to the falling of the stars, eclipses of the sun and moon, and the appearances of meteors and comets. As for their religious system, they believe there are nine heavens, the lowest of which is that immediately above their heads: they imagine, therefore, that on the falling of a star, it is occasioned by the angels in the lower heaven giving blows on the heads of the devils, for attempting to penetrate into those regions. Mr. Hanway has taken notice of this circumstance in his travels; and it is the firm belief of the Persians in general, and even amongst some of those who, from their education and sense, ought to be better informed.

The Mahomedans are interdicted by the laws of their prophet from drinking wine, but notwithstanding this prohibition many of them sacrifice, and very liberally to Bacchus.

The Persians are, of all Mahomedan nations, the least scrupulous of drinking wine, as many of them do it publicly, and almost all of them in private (excepting those who have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, and men of religion); they also are very liable to be quarrelsome when inebriated, which is often attended with fatal consequences. They eat opium, but in much less quantities than the Turks; and indeed in every thing they say or do, eat or drink, they make a point to be as different from this nation as possible, whom they detest to a man, beyond measure; esteeming Jews and Christians superior to them, and nearer to salvation. They publicly curse and abuse the three first Caliphs after Mahomed, *Abu Eker, Omar, and Osman*, whom they say were usurpers and tyrants, and unjustly deprived their prophet Ali of his

right of the Caliphate. It is impossible to conceive the great veneration they express for Ali, both in their books and in their conversation: they esteem him to be the most excellent and learned man that ever lived, and not inferior in good qualities to Mahomed himself, excepting in his express dignity, as a heavenly missionary. They say that Ali was the only man the world ever produced, who could converse in all languages; and that since him no one has appeared upon earth with an equal knowledge.

We shall conclude our extracts from this work at present, with the following account of the mode of travelling in Persia.

A *Casla* is composed of camels, horses, and mules, the whole of which are under the direction of a *Cheharwa Dar*, or Master. It is to him the price of a mule or camel is paid, and he stipulates with the traveller to feed and take care of the beast during the journey; he has under him several inferior servants, who help to unload the beasts of burden, take them to water, and attend them during forage. The *Casla*, whilst on the journey, keeps as close as possible, and on its arrival at the *Munzil Gah*, or place of encampment for the day, each load is deposited on a particular spot, marked out by the master, to which the merchant who owns the goods repairs; his baggage forms a crescent; in the centre are placed the bedding and provisions; a rope or line made of hair is then drawn round the whole, at the distance of about three yards each way, which serves to distinguish the separate encampments. During the night, the beasts are all brought to their stations, opposite to the goods they are to carry in the morning, and are made fast to the hair rope aforementioned. At the hour of moving, which is generally between three and four in the morning, they load the mules and camels. In doing this, the passengers are awakened by the jingling of the bells tied round the necks of the beasts, in order to prevent their straggling during the march. A passage from Hafiz may probably be not unacceptable to the reader, in this place, as it serves to illustrate the custom above described.

"The bell proclaims aloud, bind on your burdens!"

ODES OF HAFIZ.

When every thing is ready, the *Cheharwa Dar* orders those nearest the road to advance, and the whole move off in regular succession, in the same order as the preceding day.

POETRY.

P O E T R Y.

GREECE. AN ELEGY.

BY MRS. WEST, AUTHORESS OF MISCELLANEOUS POEMS.

DAUGHTER of Jove, whom fair Mnemosyne bore,
Descend propitious, and assist my strains;
Fain would I seek the fam'd Athenian shore,
Where rich Ilyssus * decks the lavish plains.

Or else, confin'd in Phocia's fertile vale,
I'll rove; Parnassus, o'er thy funny hill;

Pleas'd will I warble to the gentle gale,
Or trace the windings of Castalia's rill.

Vent'rous, I cross the rough Ionian main,
Thy charms, once fam'd Arcadia, to survey;
The vocal Muses fire my lofty strain,
Whilst I thy change, deserted coast, display.

This was the seat of all the tuneful choir:
Here matchless Homer tun'd his daring song;

Here Pindar mounted on his wing of fire,
Here ancient Hesiod charm'd the vulgar throng.

Lov'd by the Muses, and the queen of smiles,
Here gentle Sappho tun'd her wanton lay,
Trac'd the soft passion thro' its subtle wiles,
Nor knew that Phaon lov'd but to betray.

Here soft Menander sung, by passion fir'd,
While bold Alceus tun'd a manlier strain;
The tragic queen Euripides inspir'd,
While comic Bacchus fill'd Anacreon's brain.

Here Socrates, mild inoffensive sage,
With moral lessons strove to mend the heart;
While the great Stagyrite † adorn'd his page
With Nature's glories, and the rules of art.

Thou Plato too, amus'd the learned throng,
While thy just reas'ning trac'd th' immortal cause;
Rhetoric, Demosthenes, adorn'd thy tongue,
While strongly pleading for th' Athenian laws.

Rever'd Themistocles! how vast thy fame!
Yet the good Theban § Captain was as great:
Thou, Xenophon, wer't rival to their name,
Who led'st an army thro' the Persian state.

How chang'd the scene! Where are the warbling strains?
Where are the heroes now who once bore sway?
Where the proud cities, or well-cultur'd plains,
Or vessels crouded in the ample bay?

Where is the noble warmth that us'd to shine
In Spartan breasts; where all the generous heat?
Where the rich flow'rs of eloquence divine,
Which grac'd fair Athens, Wisdom's favor'd seat?

Behold, in blood-stain'd robes Oppression dread,
Stalks thro' the plains, and waves her ebony wand;
There Desolation rears her meagre head,
And Slav'ry humbles to a tyrant's band.

Fell Superstition, blear-ey'd demon, shrouds
With fables dark the intellectual sight;
She sits involv'd in Error's mazy clouds,
And scorns the aid of Truth's convincing light.

The fabric rais'd by Art's well-cultur'd hand,
Moulders to dust with ivy cover'd o'er;
Nor asks the haughty Turk's relentless band
To lay it level with the sandy shore.

* A river in Athens. † Aristotle. § Epaminondas.

Vol. IV.

E e

Silen

Silent Areadia now no music knows,
Save the rude cadence of the simple
swain;
Or, what the Night-bird, pitying her
woes,
Pours at dun midnight o'er the tran-
quil plain.

Sad Greece no more invites the tuneful
choir,
In Britain's isle they fix their gentle
sway;
Pleas'd to attune fair MORRIS'S * melliflu-
ous lyre,
With her thro' Bristol's fertile meads
they stray.

S O N N E T S.

BY JOHN RANNIE.

S O N N E T I.

TO FANCY.

SWEET FANCY! Friend of Nature and
the Muse,
With heav'nly visions charm thy Poet's
eye;
Spread o'er the landscape more attractive
hues,
And paint with brighter gold the vivid
sky.

Nor check the youth that boldly would
aspire
To raise the song of Sympathy and
Love;
But, as the fond enthusiast strikes the
lyre,
Let all the trembling strings in concord
move.

And, let the blaze of thy celestial fire
Wake into life the sentiment refin'd;
For hope deferr'd enervates the desire,
And casts a sickly languor o'er the
mind;

But thou to rapture can'st the spirit
warm,
And give to glowing thought th' imperish-
able charm!

* Authors of Sacred Dramas—Search after Happiness—Sir Eldred of the Bower
—and the Bleeding Rock, &c. &c.

S O N N E T II.

WRITTEN AT DUNNOTTAR CASTLE,
IN NOVEMBER, 1786.

THESE piles of grandeur please my
fancy well,
Majestic, e'en in ruin, they appear;
And hoary Time, with ceaseless labour
pale,
Frowns o'er a gloomy desolation here!

As, deeply marking the depending mind,
My wasting sighs thro' yonder tow'rs
resound,
With hoarser murmur swell'd, the sad-
den'd wind
Still scatters mournful desolation round.

—Sway'd by the tempest of the angry
North,
(Whilst slow I move thro' these des-
serted halls,
Gay mansions once of hospitable worth)
With awful din the pond'rous fragment
falls.

Fear lies—and shudders at its overthrow;
But, smiling at Destruction—Danger stalks
below!

LINES ON A LATE RESIGNATION
AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

Inscribed to Sir JOSHUA REYNOLDS,

By Mr. JERNINGHAM.

YE to whose soul kind Nature's hand
imparts
The glowing passion for the liberal arts:
Ye great dispensers of the magic strain,
Whose harmony delights almost to pain:
Ye to whose touch (with Damer's skill)
is known
To charm to life, and wake the sleeping
stone:
Ye rare Promethei, to whose hand is
giv'n
To snatch the flame that warms the breast
of Heav'n:
Ye too, ye Bards, illustrious heirs of
fame,
Who from the sun your mental lineage
claim:
Approach and see a dear and kindred Art
Unhallow'd maxims to her sons impart;

See

See her (become wild Faction's ready
tool)

Insult the Father of the modern school.
Yet he first enter'd on the barren land,
And rais'd on high Armida's pow'rful
wand :

From him the Academics boast a name,
He led the way, he smooch'd their path
to fame :

From him th' instructive lore the pupils
claim'd,
His doctrine nurtur'd, and his voice in-
flam'd !

Oh, and is all forgot ?—The sons rebel,
And, Regan-like, their hallow'd fire ex-
pel.

Could not his faculties, so meekly borne,
Arrest the hand that fix'd the rankling
thorn ?

Could not the twilight of approaching
age,

The silver hairs that crown'd th' indul-
gent sage,

Domestic virtues, his time-honor'd name,
His radiant works that croud the dome of
fame,

Say could not these suppress th' oppro-
brious scene,

And charm to slumber academic spleen ?
Mark, mark the period, when the chil-
dren sung

The parent's feelings with their serpent
tongue ;

It was while dimness veil'd the pow'rs of
sight,

* And ting'd all nature with the gloom of
night !

(Not many days remov'd) the Master
came

With wonted zeal to touch the swelling
theme !

The pregnant canvass his creation caught,
And drank his rich exuberance of thought :

Deck'd with the beams of Inspiration's
sky,

Glanc'd o'er the work his finely-frensy'd
eye.

---Malignant Fate approach'd---the scenes
decay,

To him the new creation fades away ;
Thick night abruptly shades the mimic
sky,

And clouds eternal quench the frensy'd
eye !

Invention shudder'd---Taste stood weep-
ing near---

From Fancy's eyelid gush'd the glitt'ring
tear---

Genius exclaim'd, " My matchless loss
deplorable,

" The hand of REYNOLDS falls to rise no
more !"

* The calamity here alluded to came suddenly upon Sir Joshua while he was
painting.

S O N N E T,

To Miss SEWARD, on her Defence of Pope's
Poetical Equality with Dryden.

BARD of sweet numbers ! from thy
flurry sphere,

Look smiling down, and see thy sullied
flame,

Derided lyre, and sad degraded name,
With lustre new, and added grace appear ;

Defended nobly by the hand so dear
To Worth, to Genius : by the hand,

whose claim
To Verse immortal, and immortal Fame,

Rises, through all the world, so high and
clear,

Yet true to candor, as to merit true,
See the blest Maid her eloquence employ,

To give thy mighty rival all his due :
O cause of admiration ! cause of joy !

To those who feel and own, a Seward's
lyre,

Joins all the charms of Pope to Dryden's fire.

PROLOGUE TO A PLAY

Performed in a PRIVATE THEATRE by
CHILDREN.

TO-NIGHT behold, untouch'd by art,

A little picture of the heart ;

'Tis a home-scene we sketch'd for you,
The tale is short and simple too.

To-night—but what have we to fear ?
Why should we ask indulgence here ?

These smiles assure me, we shall find
A candid friend in every mind.

THE EPILOGUE.

WE had withdrawn, but 'tis the vogue

To finish with an Epilogue ;
To point the moral of the play,

And send the audience pleas'd away.
As in a cavern dark and deep,

A roving ARAB stretch'd asleep,
Wakes at the Lion's sudden roar,

And sees his eye-balls glaring o'er ;
When lo ! the rock stone shivers round,

And, to soft Music's airy sound,
Rises a Golden Palace, bright

With Chrystal Lamps of living light,
Where hands unseen the banquet bring,

And Choirs of Virgin voices sing ;
So sweetly wild is our surprise,

When, as the Storms of Winter rise,
The Muse steps in to gild the gloom,

And bids the Flowers of Fancy bloom.

R.

S P R I N G.

A PASTORAL.

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

NO longer the storms of rude Boreas af-
fright,
They're fled with the winter away;
And all the bright beauties of spring-tide
unite,
To make the fresh meadows look gay.

How cheerfully blooming's the hill and
the dale,
Of late which so dreary appear'd;
How sweet is the fragrance that floats in
the vale,
The flow'rets that Phœbus hath rear'd.

The streams that were frozen again are
unbound,
And flow in soft murmurs along;
The birds in the bow'rs in concert are
found,
And charm us again with their song.

Then haste, my dear Phillida, haste to the
grove,
Where beauty expands the gay scene;
Where Flora, delighted, a garland hath
wove,
And spangled the carpet of green.

Ye swains, to my pipe should my shep-
herdels sing,
She'll rival the birds of the spray;
And sure as my fair one shall welcome
the spring,
They'll learn a more elegant lay.

ON READING SONNETS, &c. BY MISS
PEARSON, OR ANGELINA.

ENchanting Lyrist! could the list'ning
ear

Imbibe such dulcet melodies again,
As grac'd the humblest flow'ret of the
plain *.

The spring of pleasure would once more
appear;

The breezes bring the strains mellifluous
near!

And now again untwin'd, they sweetly
chime,

The velvet smoothness tempers the sub-
lime,

Votive to her who deck'd the hero's bier
With mournful glories†—Milder lights
relieve

Th' obstructed efforts of a weaker eye;
Such from thy sphere of radiance we re-
ceive,

Such the new lustre of the northern sky;

* The violet.

Which, if obscur'd, a kindred sense could
trace,
Mark'd in each feature, 'bove the common
race.

W. HAMILTON REID.

CHARACTERISTIC OF THE TIMES.

Et Genus, et Virtus sine Re, &c.

NOW is the age when quacks, of ev'ry
kind,
In pompous nostrums highest interest find:
The wild Enthusiast now is thought pro-
found,

Attracts an audience by mere empty sound;
Like the dull drone he wishes to partake
The honey, not himself—but others make.
Now the poor Curate scarce has porter's
pay,

Is oft oblig'd to fast, as well as pray,
While his employer lives in sensual ease,
His only study how the rich to please.
Now Genius wanders, penive and for-
lorn,

Its feeling breast with disappointment
torn;

Unfit to rise in these degenerate times,
When speaking truth is deem'd the worst
of crimes.

To purse-proud Folly scorns to bend the
knee,

And pay the tax of servile flattery:
Now, shou'd the blockhead pay the gol-
den fees,

The venal College grants him his degrees,
May be physician, lawyer, or divine,
Ere long in splendid equipage to shine:

Buy but a patent, and you vend your pills,
Who shall dispute but they can cure their
ills,

Though constitutions differ as the mind,
Your panacea suiteth all mankind.

O N G E N I U S.

AN IMPROMPTU.

GENIUS, fine eccentric pow'r,
Charmer of the transient hour,

Vivid as the brilliant rays
Darting from the diamond's blaze,

Keenly feeling joy, or woe,
E'er expos'd to overthrow:

Envy points its shafts at thee,
Poison'd with malignity:

Beings of a sordid kind,
To superior merit blind,

Suffer thee to pine in shade,
When on sickly couch thou'rt laid,

Joy to think thine end is near,
And wish to see thee press thy bier.

† Miss Seward.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY REGISTER.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, Feb. 15.

RECEIVED the Land and Malt Tax bills from the Commons, which were read a first time. Also the Corn Indemnity bill, and two Naturalization bills. Heard Counsel further in the Chester cause. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, Feb. 15.

Read a third time the Marine Mutiny bill. The report of the Mutiny bill was postponed till to-morrow.

Mr. Fox gave notice, that he should move the repeal of the Test Act on Wednesday fortnight, or the first open day after that.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed a call of the House; and after some conversation it was agreed that the call should stand for Monday the first of March, and Mr. Fox's motion for the Tuesday following. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 16.

Read a third time, and passed, the Corn Indemnity bill. Adjourned to Westminster Hall.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 16.

The report of the Mutiny bill was postponed till to-morrow.

Sir Peter Burrell moved, that the report of the Committee appointed to enquire into the state of Westminster-Hall and the buildings adjoining, be printed, which was agreed to.

A message was received from the Lords, that their Lordships will proceed farther on the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq; on Thursday. Adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, Feb. 17.

Several private bills and petitions were presented, among which Alderman Newnham presented a petition from the Debtors confined in Newgate.

Sir John Miller observed, that in the year 1786, by a vote of the House, a Committee was appointed to examine into the accounts of the expenditure of the public money; but since that time he had not discovered whether any report of the same had been laid before the House, or what was the result of their examination. He therefore wished to know, whether that investigation had taken place, what was the result of it, and whether those accounts were laid before the House.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer replied, that those accounts had been reported to the King; that it was never designed they should previously appear before Parliament; and that Government then had before them a most voluminous account of them indeed.

The order of the day being read for the second reading of the Debtors and Creditors bill,

Sir John Miller remarked, that some objections had been started against this bill; and, among others, its want of correctness. If the bill required farther improvements, he assured the House, that he would be the first to adopt them. The liberal and humane tendency of the bill had attracted his attention, and he would now support its being read a second time.

Mr. Angelo Taylor thanked the Honourable Gentleman who spoke last, for admitting that amendments were necessary. He would then assure him, that the whole had need of amendment. He insisted that the laws of debtor and creditor, as at present in use, afford every relief to both parties, consistent with justice and prudence, and concluded with observing, that as every clause appeared defective, he would oppose its second reading.

Sir James Johnstone professed himself a friend to the general tendency of the bill; but some clauses he thought should be amended; for instance, though he was an advocate for the spirit of the bill, yet he could not relish the bread and water clause it contained; but with respect to the absolute

solute necessity of lawyers framing all parts of it, he differed in opinion.

Mr. *Jekyll* said, he wished gentlemen would seriously consider into what danger and inconvenience they would plunge not only the debtor and creditor, but also the Magistrate, by passing this bill; they were not probably aware, that by this act they deprived the Judges of a power, which is indispensable to their station, and was little less than an implication of censure upon them; to this he called the attention of gentlemen, and wished to caution them against a hasty support of measures, which at their leisure, and with sad experience, they would regret they ever put in execution. He objected to many clauses in the bill, and to none more than the bread and water clause, mentioned by the Hon. *Bazouet*; and he might venture to say, that if there were as many Scotch lawyers in the House as there were English, they would make it an act of Union to reject it.

Mr. *Burgess* said, he hoped the House would believe, that his motives for introducing this bill, were no other than those arising from wishes to do good, and to support the constitution and the laws, by defending and relieving that very class of men, mentioned by the Hon. Gentleman. He was surprised at the objections which were stated against several clauses in the bill, but from the summary manner in which they were mentioned, he was led to think the bill was not studied so fairly, at least so accurately, as might be expected by those who had resolved to oppose it. If clauses in the bill were objectionable, surely they should be discussed with reason, and not run down with passion. In a Committee this only could take place, and there those clauses could best be rectified; and he thought a Committee on it, even for that reason, was an advantage he should avail himself of. Gentlemen appeared fearful of innovation; he begged leave to assure them, it was the restoration of the old law that was his object. In that old law two evidences were necessary in certain cases; but by modern modes, he was sorry to find two ideal Gentlemen introduced for certain purposes; their names were well known, and merely nominal, they were *John Doe* and *Richard Roe*. He wished to substitute for them something real, and this was one object in his bill.

The bill was divided into three general heads, namely, *The Relief of Debtors, the Payment of Creditors, and the Regulation of Gaols*.

In relation to the first head, this bill went not only to prevent frivolous arrests, but also unjust ones. Every gentleman knows that the process for arresting is so easy, that fraud and violence are daily taking advantage of it, and attorneys are

never wanting to assist. Out of numberless cases that he could adduce, he would mention a few, all exactly in point, which called loudly for the hand of the legislature to take this power from those vultures, some of whom, to the disgrace of our laws, are still practising in the courts, and prowling upon the unguarded victims of their oppression. He then mentioned several circumstances, painting in high colours the necessity of redressing the grievance of arrests according to the powers vested in attorneys and creditors. Among which he related an account of a man who was married to an amiable woman, by whom he had eight children; and having grown tired of her, or wishing to marry or live with another woman, had actually been advised by an attorney, whom he procured for his detested purpose, to arrest her, and throw her into Newgate, with an intention of forcing her to come to an accommodation with him for a paltry separate maintenance; and this man was still in practice in the Courts.

The Lords Act did not give the redress to be wished for; for by it a man arrested at the beginning of the long vacation, must continue confined to the next term, a grievance which this bill went to redress.

He next alluded to the state of the gaols, and the allowance of 3s. 6d. a week to prisoners. He took particular notice of the advantage taken by many who well deserved the title of swindlers, living within the rules of the Fleet and King's Bench Prisons, to enable them the better to take in the unwary, and that in open defiance of the law. Nay, many of them went to Bath, and several other places of amusement; and when they had got as much in debt, every where they went, as they possibly could, their simple creditors discover, that they can only punish them by sending them home.

This, and the extensive circuit of three miles, which was the circle of the rules of the King's Bench prison, accounted for the amazing income of 5000l. annually to the Keeper of that prison; and this bill went to remedy those grievances.

He next combated the observation, "that the Upper House was the proper place for the bill to originate in;" and in a case similar, quoted an answer given by the Judges when they were required to bring in a bill to such a purport, which was, "that it was not their business, and they would not do it."

The Attorney General replied very ably to the Honourable Gentleman who spoke last, in different points in his speech, and concluded with recommending him to defer the second reading to this day three months.

Mr.

Mr. Mainwaring conceiving a censure or aspersion to be thrown upon the Judges by the Honourable Gentleman (Mr. Burgess), thought some explanation should be made.

Mr. Burgess rose to explain, and said he hoped he should be esteemed the last man in the world to convey such an idea; such never was his intention. There was a defect existing somewhere, and his observation only went to struggle for its removal. His opinion of the learned Judges was high and most respectable, and he assured Gentlemen, he would be ever glad to prove it by any act that could enable him to do so.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer avowed himself a friend to the principles of the bill, and paid many compliments to the humanity and indefatigable zeal of the Hon. Gentleman who introduced it: but hinted that notwithstanding several circumstances had been related by him of the highest iniquity, and that, to prevent the like, some mode should certainly be struck out with all possible dispatch, yet as these were but assertions, and as the House should have corroborating evidence in support of them before it, and as several had said, many of the clauses were exceptionable, he thought that the whole of the bill had better be re-considered, and time sufficient for that purpose be taken, at the expiration of which it might more properly be introduced, supported by the joint abilities of the Gentlemen of the Long Robe, and the good wishes and endeavours of every Gentleman in the House.

Mr. Burgess consented. The question was then put that the bill be read a second time this day, which being negatived,

Mr. Burgess then moved, that the bill be read a second time this day three months, which motion was put and carried. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THURSDAY, Feb. 18.

Several private bills were read a third time and passed. Adjourned to Westminster-hall.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THURSDAY, Feb. 18.

A bill, repealing the duties on unwrought tin, exported to places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, was brought in, and read a first time.

The mutiny bill was read a third time and passed.

A message was received from the Lords, that their Lordships will proceed further

on the Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq; on Tuesday next.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 19.

Passed the Land and Malt tax bills. Heard Counsel farther on the Chester cause, the King against Amory. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 19.

A new writ was moved for the Borough of Old Sarum, in the room of the Hon. John Villiers, who has accepted of the office of Chief Justice in Eyre, North of Trent. Also a new writ for the Borough of Tiverton, in the room of the Hon. Dudley Ryder, who has accepted of the place of Comptroller of her Majesty's Household.

Mr. Flood gave notice, that as a call of the House had been determined on, he would postpone his intended motion on the subject of the Parliamentary Representation till Thursday the fourth of March.

Mr. Dundas moved for a great number of accounts of the revenue of the East India Company, preparatory to his bringing forward his annual budget.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer called the attention of the House to the act which passed in the last session of Parliament, for regulating the importation and exportation of corn and grain. It was of very great importance to the landed interest of this country, that some general system should be adopted, which would apply to every part of the kingdom, and therefore he was extremely desirous that the subject should be fully investigated, previous to its coming before the Committee of the whole House.

The Committees of Supply and Ways and Means were postponed to Monday, and the House immediately adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, Feb. 22.

Heard Counsel farther on the Chester cause, the King against Amory. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, Feb. 22.

The Marquis of Graham moved for accounts of Tin and Pewter exported and imported annually.

Sir I. R. Miller observed, that an Hon. Gentleman (Mr. Courtney), not then in his place, had given notice of a motion respecting the Ordnance Estimates. These estimates had been voted in the Committee, at a late hour, after a sharp debate on the Army Estimates; and he wished for an opportunity of making some remarks upon them. The Hon. Baronet then went over the objections to the fortifications going on in the West-Indies, at Gibraltar, the wall, and Governor's house at Plymouth; and concluded with moving, that an account be laid before the House of the money expended on the house and offices erecting for the Governor of Plymouth, and an estimate of the sums that would be required to complete and furnish the same, exclusive of what had been, or might be done, by the corps of military artificers.

Captain Berkeley said, that if the Hon. Baronet would look into the Ordnance Estimates for 1788, he would find the sum of 2,900*l.* voted for the Governor's house at Plymouth, and no more had been, or would be, demanded for it.

Sir John Miller said, he understood that sum to have been voted for repairing the old house in the citadel.

The Speaker then put the question, which was carried in the negative.

The Committee of Supply, and of Ways and Means, were postponed till Wednesday.

Mr. Wilberforce intimated a motion for empowering the select Committee on the Slave Trade to interrupt the examination of evidence against the abolition, in order to examine immediately certain persons who must necessarily quit the kingdom before that examination could be closed.

Mr. M. A. Taylor suggested the propriety of postponing the motion till to-morrow.

Mr. Wilberforce agreed, and the House adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 23.

Read a third time, and passed, the Marine Mutiny bill. Adjourned to Westminster-hall.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, Feb. 23.

Mr. Adam presented a petition from the manufacturers of Glasgow against the Tobacco bill, which was brought up and read; but being found to contain expressions which the Speaker observed were not admissible according to the forms of the House, after some conversation it was

agreed to grant leave to withdraw it, and that no notice should be taken of it in the minutes.

A message was received from the Lords, that their Lordships will proceed further in the Trial of Mr. Hastings on Thursday.

Mr. Jolliffe said, it was his intention to explain the principle and the provisions of his intended bill for the improvement of Commonable Lands, had the House been more fully attended. As, however, there was no opposition to the principle, he conceived there could be no objection to granting leave to bring in the bill, which he then moved, reserving the explanation of its clauses till it came before the House. Leave was given.

The House went into a Committee on two acts of his present Majesty, granting certain powers to the Governor of Canada, for regulating the importation of corn and flour in that province, with a view to bringing in a bill to explain and extend those powers.

Ordered the report to be received to-morrow. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

WEDNESDAY, Feb. 24.

Read a third time, and passed, the Mutiny bill.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

WEDNESDAY, Feb. 24.

Sir William Chambers presented plans and estimates of the buildings at Somerset Place. A petition was presented from the manufacturers of Norwich against the Tobacco bill. The Committees of Supply, and of Ways and Means, were postponed till Friday.

Mr. Sheridan gave notice, that he should move the repeal of the Tobacco Excise bill on Monday se'nnight.

Mr. Ryckworth gave notice, that on Friday next he should move for leave to bring in a bill to allow the free exportation of sheep and lambs, &c. from the port of Southampton to the Isle of Wight; the same as the bill for that purpose, which passed the House last year, leaving out the clauses respecting cocoa nuts, which had been the cause of that bill's being rejected by the Lords. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THURSDAY, Feb. 25.

Read a third time, and passed, several private bills. Adjourned to Westminster Hall.

HOUSE

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THURSDAY, Feb. 25.

A message was received from the Lords, that their Lordships would proceed farther on the Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq; on Thursday the 22d of April.

Mr. Cawthorn gave notice, that on Wednesday next he should move for leave to bring in a bill to enable the Returning Officer, and his Clerks, at elections for Members of Parliament, to administer the oaths of abjuration, &c. &c. to voters, at places different from where the poll is taken. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 26.

Several private bills were read a third time, and passed.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

FRIDAY, Feb. 26.

The Marquis of Graham brought up a bill for regulating the trade between the United States of America and the West Indies, and between the West Indies and the Province of Canada, which was read a first time, and ordered to be read a second time on Monday.

Mr. Hopkins brought up the Navy Estimates, which, upon motion, were ordered to be taken into consideration on Monday.

Sir John Miller gave notice, that on Wednesday next he should move for certain accounts respecting the Estimates of the Ordnance.

Mr. Dundas moved for leave to bring in a bill for continuing and amending an act of the 23d of George III, for the more expeditious payment of creditors in Scotland.

Sir William Dolben gave notice, that on Wednesday next he should move for leave to bring in a bill for extending the act passed in the last session of Parliament relative to the African Slave Trade.

Mr. Rushworth, in consequence of the notice he had given, moved, that the House do immediately resolve into a Committee of the whole House to consider of the propriety of bringing in a bill for permitting the transportation of sheep and lambs to and from the Isle of Wight and the Port of Southampton, and of all goods not liable to export duties, without cockets or bonds.

Mr. Wilberforce said he would oppose the bill, unless it was to be on a more comprehensive scale.

Mr. Rose said, that though he had introduced a similar bill in the last session of Parliament, he could not consent to the present.—He had it in contemplation to extend the plan to the whole coasting trade of the kingdom.—He also thought it rather an extraordinary proceeding in the Hon. Gentleman (Mr. Rushworth) to make a motion which went to affect the revenue of the country, without any communication with his Majesty's Ministers, either public or private.

Mr. Rushworth expressed his surprize at the objection. In the last session of Parliament, the very bill which he proposed to bring in had been introduced by the Hon. Gentleman himself, and unanimously passed. It was true it had been thrown out in the other House, on the ground that it had been ridiculously coupled with extraneous enactments relative to *cocoa nuts* and *tub-bottomed boats*.

Mr. Hawkins Browne spoke against the motion, and recommended it to Mr. Rushworth to withdraw it. He said, that as the bill proposed would comprehend the whole coasting trade of the kingdom, the Hon. Gentleman's purpose would be completely answered.

Mr. Rushworth explained.—He said the situation of the Isle of Wight was such as justified the bill which he proposed, because it was impossible that goods could be transported thither, or exported, by any other mode than water carriage.

On the question being put, the House divided,

Against the motion, — 59
For it, — 51

In a Committee of the whole House, on the bill for permitting the exportation of Unwrought Tin, duty free, to places beyond the Cape of Good Hope,

Mr. Wilbraham said, he rose not for the purpose of opposing the bill, but to express his approbation of its principle. He hoped, however, that if it should not be found on experience to afford that relief to the tinners which it proposed, that on some future occasion their distressed situation would claim the attention of the noble Marquis.

The bill passed the Committee, and the Report was ordered to be received on Monday. The Supply and Ways and Means were postponed. After which the House adjourned to Monday.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, March 1.

Read a second time Rybot's Divorce bill.

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HOUSE

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, March 1.

The House in a Committee of Supply, Mr. Hopkins moved the Navy Estimates.

Sir Grey Cooper wished to be informed what the difference was between the total of the present estimates and those of last year.

Mr. Hopkins said, the estimates before the Committee were 95,000*l.* less than those of last year.

Sir Grey Cooper said, the difference appeared to be in favour of the country, while in reality it was not; for the Navy Debt had increased 105,000*l.* in the course of last year; and it signified little what the estimates were, when the debt went on increasing at so enormous a rate.

The several resolutions were then agreed to, and ordered to be reported to-morrow.

Mr. Steele moved the provision for the Militia, which was also agreed to, and ordered to be reported to-morrow.

Lord Penrhyn wished the call of the House to stand over, in order to secure a full attendance of Members on the discussion of the Slave Trade.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that to postpone the call from day to day, was only to destroy the efficacy of it. A full attendance on the discussion of the Slave Trade might be secured either by moving a new call, or making an order that no Member should quit town without leave.

The Members were then called over in the usual form, after which the House adjourned.

TUESDAY, March 2.

Mr. Dundas moved for leave to bring in a bill for altering the summer sessions, and the Easter and Whitsuntide sessions, in that part of Great Britain called Scotland. Leave was given.

Mr. Fox rose and observed, that before he should enter upon the important business which he intended to submit to the consideration of the House, he must express his concern that it had not fallen to the lot of an abler person than himself to bring it forward, and to do that justice to it which so important a question required. Though the cause of the Dissenters might suffer in his hands, through his want of ability, he could not help feeling an honest pride in reflecting, that they had applied to him to plead their cause, and to state the grounds on which they thought themselves entitled to have the Test and Corporation acts repealed. This application he considered the more honorable to him, as it was made by persons who had usually differed from him in the general

line of politics, and whom, in his political career, he had generally found his adversaries.

After these observations he said, toleration in religion was what every liberal man, in these enlightened days, was ready to grant; but till within a very few years it never did exist in any state whatever. After alluding to the late revolution in France, and what had been done in that country towards the forming of a new government, he proceeded to state what toleration was, and contended that the State had no right to take cognizance of the opinions of men; that it ought only to interfere when, by any overt act, they had offended against the law; and that when it stretched this authority over the thoughts of men, it assumed a jurisdiction which belonged only to the Almighty. Upon these principles he was ready to rest the cause of the Dissenters, and he wanted not to strengthen them by any arguments drawn from their good conduct; for even had their conduct been as bad as it was good, he should still think them entitled to what he was going to ask for them.

The Hon. Gentleman then touched upon the injurious reflections which had been thrown out against the Dissenters, and endeavoured to prove, by historical facts, that they had always demeaned themselves as good citizens, and as peaceable and loyal subjects. He next considered some of those principles upon which the Test and Corporation Acts were founded, and the several objections which he had seen in print against the repeal of them. He then recapitulated his general principles in support of the repeal, and observed, that the Test was not sufficient to exclude from the service of the public men who might entertain principles the most hostile to the constitution. Provided a man disbelieved transubstantiation, and was willing to receive the sacrament, according to the rites of the Church of England, he might fill the highest offices of the State, though he should be an enemy to monarchy and to prelacy.

Having brought his arguments to a conclusion, Mr. Fox said, he made no doubt but the part he had this day taken would make him many enemies, who would endeavour to misrepresent what he had said; and as he had been already compared to Oliver Cromwell, and charged with entertaining principles against monarchy, so he made no doubt but he should be charged also with Oliver Cromwell's hostile designs against the Church. But it was matter of triumph to him, that the very people who had called him Oliver Cromwell, on account of intentions against the constitution, which they had imputed to him, had since waited upon him, and requested

requested him to plead their cause this day. This was to him an honorable reparation of the wrong that they had done him; and he hoped the day would come when the Church would see his conduct in its true light, and acquit him of any design upon her splendor, influence, or greatness. Should any attempt be made to invade her liberty or just rights, if she would apply to him to defend her, she should find him as ready to stand forward the champion of those rights, as he was this day to defend those of the Dissenters.

He then observed that if the Legislature would agree to the repeal of the Sacramental Test, the Dissenters would be no longer known in this country. Persecution was a great bond of union; men generally united to resist oppression, but remove oppression, and the union is at an end, and you will hear of no more applications from the Dissenters. Continue it, and you will render that union still more and more compact and firm; and the Dissenters will from time to time renew their application, until they at last succeed.

In no other country did a Sacramental Test exist. In France there was no Test at all till after the revocation of the edict of Nantz; then it was that the Church of France became intolerant.

And perhaps it was the very intolerance which produced that revocation, which after the revolution of a century, she was expiating at this moment. Of all that the National Assembly had done, that certainly which he thought the most unwise was, the ruin of the Church. The only excuse perhaps that could be made for it was, that when oppression in Church or State, or both, has been carried to too great a length, men think that the only way to destroy the oppression is, to destroy the body oppressing.

The sufferings of the Church of France this day ought to be a warning to the Church of England, and to all other Churches, not to be intolerant; or carry their superiority too far.

He concluded a speech which he had been upwards of two hours and a half in delivering, by moving, that "a Committee be appointed to consider of the Repeal of so much of the Test and Corporation Acts as relates to the obligation imposed by the same upon Dissenters to receive the Sacrament in the Church of England."

Sir Harry Houghton seconded the motion, but he spoke so low and indistinctly, that we could hear very little of what he said. From what we did hear we found that he declared himself a Dissenter; but stated, at the same time, that he wished well to the Establishment, and neither he

nor his brethren had the least intention or inclination to disturb it.

Mr. Pitt said, he agreed most heartily with the Right Hon. mover of the question in every thing which he had said in support of toleration, and against persecution; but he could not subscribe to the conclusions which he had drawn from his principles. One would have imagined, he said, from the Right Hon. Gentleman's premises, that he was arguing only for toleration of the Dissenters, but his inferences went a great deal farther, for they went to an absolute equality with the established Church. Now this was incompatible with the very meaning of the word toleration; for that could not be said to be tolerated, which was equal in every respect to the establishment. To be tolerated it must be supposed to stand a little lower.

That the civil magistrate had no right to interfere and punish a man for his merely speculative opinions in religion, he was most ready to admit; but, on the other hand, he was as ready to contend, that if the legislature knew that certain opinions were entertained by a minority of the community, which even by possibility might be injurious to the majority, that majority had a right to guard against those consequences by such a Test as in their discretion they should think most fit for that purpose. Indeed, the Right Hon. Gentleman had admitted this by implication, when he allowed that an oath of allegiance might be imposed upon the subject. This surely was a Test, and therefore the question ought not to be whether a Test might be imposed, but whether that which had been imposed was the most eligible.

Mr. Beaufoy began by observing, that before he proceeded to reply to the argument of the Right Hon. Gentleman, he could not but remark, and in remarking he could not but exceedingly lament the manner in which, not from a harshness of feeling towards the Dissenters (for he was no stranger to the natural benignity of the Right Hon. Gentleman's disposition) but from the nature of the cause, which he had undertaken to defend, he had commented on the present application of his fellow subjects. Is it not sufficient, said Mr. Beaufoy, that the Dissenters are excluded from all the offices and honours of the State; that they, whose attachment to the House of Brunswick has not always been equalled, and has never been exceeded, should be excluded from the service of their gracious master? Is it not sufficient that they should be denied the common privilege of bearing arms, as if, like slaves, they had no property to protect, no rights to maintain, no country to defend? Is it

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not sufficient that they should be involved in the same penalties with which the vengeance of the law pursues the most inveterate and atrocious offenders, but they must also be charged with cherishing designs which their conduct had disproved as constantly as their language had disclaimed, and which their principles, as far as I have ever known them, have no tendency to produce? If they were really men of the factious disposition which the Right Hon. Gentleman has described, would they in all times of national weakness and of public distress (the times at which the voice of faction is ever the loudest) have borne their sufferings with such constant, uniform, persevering patience, never troubling you at such seasons with solicitation or complaint. The example of Ireland had taught them that the hour of national distress is also that of national justice; but far from availing themselves of the knowledge which that example conveyed, they have always, in these unhappy moments of embarrassment, preferred a continuance of suffering to every hope of relief. It was not till all difficulties were removed, and all anxieties were fled; it was not till after the return of the general strength had given security to all rights but theirs, that they intreated your attention to the hardship they endured from the Sacramental Laws. After the continuance of such a conduct for more than 120 years, they did venture to hope (nor can that hope be considered as presumptuous) that they were entitled not only to the justice, which however is all they ask, but also to the partial attachment and affectionate regard of the Legislature. Nor can I persuade myself, notwithstanding the censures of the Right Hon. Gentleman (censures strongly implied, rather than directly expressed) that the House of Commons will hear with indignation that, which before a still greater tribunal is always heard with indulgence, a repetition of earnest intreaties from those who are struggling with oppression. The arguments of the Right Hon. Gentleman naturally arrange themselves under two distinct heads, that of the conduct of the Dissenters, and that of the merits of the question considered in the abstract. On the first of these points he charges them with inconsistency of conduct, in endeavouring to impose a Test upon others at the very time that they bitterly complain of the hardship resulting from the existence of a Test on themselves. Inconsistency of conduct! Have the Dissenters ever denied the propriety of civil tests for civil purposes? Have they ever disputed, under proper regulations, the expedience and wisdom of oaths? Have they ever declared, that such persons as are candidates for civil offices should not

be called upon to give a pledge of faithful allegiance and firm attachment to the state? The folly and injustice of religious tests for civil offices, they have, indeed, invariably reprobated; for they have ever asserted, that no power on earth has a right to impose on any man a declaration of religious belief as the condition on which alone he should be called to the possession of a political employment, and consistently with these declarations, they have sometimes urged to those who are candidates for their favour, that he who wishes to be appointed the guardian of the rights of others, ought, at least, to be willing to acknowledge the existence of those rights; but never, on any occasion, have they examined the person who solicited their votes to represent them in Parliament, on the abstract points of his religious belief, or the principles of his speculative Creed. The propriety, the expedience, the wisdom of such distinction between civil tests for civil purposes, and religious tests for the same purposes, are sufficiently obvious, but the inconsistency which that distinction is supposed to imply, I own myself at a loss to discern; still, however, the Right Hon. Gentleman states, that the conduct of the Dissenters towards the candidates for their favour is unconstitutional and unfair. Is it unconstitutional and unfair that the Dissenter should say to the candidate for his favour, "You desire me to appoint you the guardian of all that is dear to an Englishman, the laws and constitution of his country, as well as his property and freedom; but before I consent to raise you to so important a station, permit me to ask, for it much concerns me to know, are you yourself a friend to the rights of the subject; do you wish well to the cause of the injured, or are you disposed to uphold the course of oppression? You cannot be a stranger to the hardships to which I am exposed by the Sacramental Laws, nor can you want information on a subject which has been agitated in Parliament, and canvassed by every person in the kingdom. If then you are not inclined to grant me that relief, which on every principle of justice, and of the faith of Parliament, virtually, but strongly pledged, I am entitled to receive, on what principle, or on what pretext, can you expect my support? You refuse me the common privileges of a citizen, and, in return, shall I raise you to the rank of a Legislator? You wish the continuance of laws that expose me to the same punishment which is inflicted on those who have proved themselves faithless to man, and perjured to Heaven; and in return for such indignities, shall I invest you with eminence and honour?" The policy, the wisdom of such language,

language, in persons who constitute but a small part of the community, may perhaps be questioned, but surely in that language there is nothing that can be deemed unconstitutional or unfair. In the next place, the Right Hon. Gentleman states that the Dissenters are justly chargeable with a breach of public faith, in claiming indulgencies from Parliament, after they had solemnly declared that, if the relief which a few years back was asked by their Ministers were given, they should have nothing further to solicit from the legislature of their country: and in speaking on this subject, while he has expressed himself towards Dr. Kippis with that justice which is obviously due to the eminence of his character, in the sacred profession to which he belongs, as well as to his distinguished name in the literary world, he has taxed him as the person to whom this charge of inconsistency between conduct and assurances, specifically and solemnly given, particularly applies; but the Right Hon. Gentleman has too much candour to have hazarded such a charge, if he had not confounded two claims which are perfectly unconnected. That of the Ministers, who petitioned for, and obtained legislative relief; and that of the laity, who were as little concerned in that relief as the Ministers now are in the specific indulgence, if such it must be called, to which the present application relates. The Ministers with perfect good faith assured the Legislature, that they, as Ministers, had no additional claim to urge, or further relief to solicit, and from this claim they have never departed; for to them no emolument can arise, no advantage, civil or religious, can be gained from the repeal which a different description of men, the Laity, now earnestly request from the hardships of the Sacramental Laws. The last circumstance on which the Right Hon. Gentleman has founded his objections to the conduct of the Dissenters consists in the formation of their Provincial Assemblies, and of that General Meeting which has been lately announced in London: I am happy that on this part of the subject I can appeal to the best of proofs, the experience of past times, for the perfect consistency of that Meeting with every consideration of general tranquillity, and of national interest: for, in the year 1733, on precisely the same grounds as at present, those of wishing to convince the Legislature how sensibly affected all denominations of the Dissenters were with the penalties imposed upon them by the Sacramental Laws, the Deputies of the London Congregations requested that delegates to a national meeting might be sent from all the principal towns of the kingdom. On that occasion the same clamour as at

present arose; the same suggestions were employed; the same dark insinuations were urged; and the voice of calumny was still loud when the sudden news of a rebellion in the North burst on the public ear. Conspiration was in every eye; the sound of despair was heard in every street. At that fearful crisis what was the conduct of the Protestant Dissenters? At the very time that many of their calumniators were negotiating with the public enemy, and others were hastening to his camp, the Dissenters rose as one man in defence of the life and throne of their Sovereign. This was their reply to the accusations which assailed their fame. By the memory of those brave men, who, on that occasion, equally despised the sword of the enemy, and the vengeance of the Sacramental Laws. By the blood of those Martyrs to their attachment to the House of Brunswick, who perished in the field of Culloden, let me conjure you to banish from your thoughts those unworthy suspicions of your countrymen, with which their defamers have endeavoured to taint your minds! From this review of the several charges on the conduct of the Dissenters, Mr. Beaufoy next proceeded to the arguments by which Mr. Pitt had combated the rights which they claimed, to be deemed capable in law of enjoying those offices of honour and trust, to which the partiality of their Sovereign might call them. He observed, that there were two grounds on which the right of the Dissenters to that capacity had been combated. The *first* was, that a majority of the inhabitants of the kingdom have a right to exclude from all the employments of the State, such persons as differ from themselves in the abstract points of religious belief; the *other* was derived from a consideration of the objects and purposes of Government. On the first of these grounds, Mr. Beaufoy said, that the argument had not been, and, in his opinion, could not be strongly urged; for, exclusive of every abstract consideration, it was perfectly clear, that such reasoning, however applicable in England to the actual situation of affairs, or convenient in itself for the purposes of the present discussion, was too inconsistent with the conduct of the British government in another part of the empire, to be deemed salutary in practice, or wise in theory. He wished not, however, to dwell on this division of the subject, or to show that such reasoning must prove that the principles maintained in the British Parliament must disprove the justice of that Government which has long been established in Ireland, and which certainly is not founded on the idea that a majority of the inhabitants have a right to exclude their fellow citizens from all offices of emolument,

emolument, honour and trust. In arguing on the nature and ends of government, Mr. Beaufoy observed, that the right of the Dissenters to be deemed capable in law of holding such offices, civil or military, as they might be called upon to fill by the voice of their Sovereign, rested on the best and broadest of all foundations, that on which government itself is built. To prove this point, he said, he need not have recourse to solemn deductions and formal inferences, or remind the House of what they so perfectly knew, that besides the right which nature has given to every man to his property, his freedom, and his life, she has also conferred on him a fourth right, that of defending the former three, and that government is nothing more than a systematic mode of carrying these four rights into convenient and complete effect. As little need he observe, that though upon this principle every man may seem to have naturally an equal claim with every other man to be deemed capable in law of taking his part in that system of defence, yet, as it was perfectly obvious that every man could not be called to an actual exertion of such a right, there must be somewhere a power of selection; which power the people of England with evident wisdom had vested in the same hands to which they have entrusted the supreme executive power of the state.

The only point, he observed, for consideration was, what are the conditions that constitute this rule of selection? That on the one hand the Dissenters contended that, as the rule of admission was directed to the attainment of civil objects, it ought to be founded on civil principles alone, whereas the Right Hon. Gentleman had contended it ought to be founded on religious principles also. The Dissenters conceived that no conditions should be necessary to constitute legal capacity for office, but the choice of the Sovereign in the first place, and in the second, an ability and willingness to give with effect, an assurance of civil attachment to the State: a bond of firm and faithful allegiance. On these principles it was evident that two descriptions of men would be excluded—first all those who have been convicted of perjury, and had consequently shewn, that on their minds the most binding of all bonds is incapable of producing its natural effect—secondly, all such persons, if any such there be, as under the denomination of papists (a term which the Right Hon. Gentleman, with a clearness of distinction that I trust will always be remembered, has justly distinguished from the Catholics) are understood to believe that oaths to an heretical government are not binding on the swearer. But the Right Hon. Gen-

tleman, not satisfied with these conditions, contends, that, though the subject be able to give with effect, and may have actually given the strongest possible pledge of attachment to the State, yet that the legislature, on account of the abstract opinions of his religious belief, has a right to exclude him from the honours and emoluments of all public employments, civil and military, and has also a right to consign him to degradation and dishonour, and to impose on him, though guiltless of offence, punishment that can never be warranted, except by atrocious crimes. Consistently with this opinion, the Right Hon. Gentleman has also alleged, or rather has taken it for granted in his reasoning, that the government of a country has a right to impose on the Dissenters whatever restraints, and whatever penalties it shall deem expedient for the security of the established church; but terrible indeed, if this principle should be established, must be the situation of the Dissenters. For what is it but to say, that not by their own actions, but by other men's fears shall the measures of their penalties be determined. Try them by their actions, and it will be found that they are entitled to the strongest affection of their country, and to the attachment and gratitude of the church, for more than once, in times of difficulty and distress, they have saved her from impending destruction, and at this very hour it is generally understood that the Church of Ireland is upheld by their zealous attention to her interests; but if the extent of their sufferings is in future to be determined not by their own conduct, but by the apprehensions of others, a situation of greater humiliation and of deeper distress can scarcely be conceived; for they cannot conceal from themselves that tho' the fears of the present hour may be satisfied with the penalties of the present law, yet that the fears of the succeeding hour may suggest that they who are unfit to be trusted with the subordinate offices of the state ought not to be invested with the most important of all offices, that of legislative authority. Thus the Dissenters may be hereafter excluded from the right of sitting in Parliament. As little can they conceal from themselves that a still stronger apprehension may intimidate, that he who is unfit to be intrusted with an Excise-man's office, must be ill-qualified to choose the guardians of whatever is most sacred in the laws and constitution of the country. Thus the Dissenters may be excluded from the right of voting at elections. Fear is generally progressive, and on some future occasions, may possibly suggest, that they who cannot with prudence be allowed the management of their commercial concerns, lest they should give

give them too much influence in the state, ought not to be indulged the greater influence which the possession of landed property bestows. Thus the Dissenters may be excluded from the right of purchasing or succeeding to estates in land. Others again, of greater timidity, perhaps, or who value themselves more on consistency of character, may suggest that if the Dissenters are such enemies to the church, as to render their exclusion a wise and salutary precaution, if they really are such steadfast inveterate foes to the established religion, that to intrust them with arms, is to hazard her safety, they ought not, in common prudence, to be permitted for a moment to continue in the realm. Thus the banishment of the Dissenters, may be deemed a necessary matter. Mr. Beaumont said he was unwilling to pursue this train of reasoning any further, lest he should seem to describe, as the possible language of his countrymen, that which he only meant to state as the natural language of the principle which the Right Hon. Gentleman, without adverting to its consequences, had endeavoured to inculcate; yet if the conclusions which obviously result from the principle, be those alone which in argument he was bound to discuss, he thought himself obliged to state, that under the influence of that principle, there might hereafter be persons who may be induced to urge, that though the disburdening the church of her foes, be a wise and salutary measure, yet that the prudence of permitting the escape of an enemy, irritated, but not weakened, exasperated, but not subdued, may well be disputed; that the same consideration that would justify the banishment of the Dissenters, would equally justify a more effectual expedient, and that if the memory of Charles the Ninth, and of the festival of St. Bartholomew, must be reprobated, it should rather be for the laxness of the execution, than for the folly of the design. He once more declared his perfect persuasion that such sentiments could never again be avowed or entertained in Britain. Yet, said he, I cannot but reflect that 200 years have scarcely elapsed since (even in this kingdom) the sun was darkened by the smoke of those fires which consumed in torment the individuals who at that time dissented from the established church. Are then the Dissenters mistaken when they conceive that the principle which is thus inculcated, opens an immeasurable gulf in which their rights of property, of freedom and of life, may all be lost? If they are mistaken, let proofs of that mistake be given; let it be shown, that the principle in question will justify the exclusion of the Dissenters from all the subordinate offices of the state, in which

their enmity to the church, if it really existed, must be abortive, but will not justify their exclusion from legislative power, by the possession of which the consequence of a hostile disposition might indeed be dangerous: let it be shewn that the principle will justify the taking from them the right of defending their liberty and their existence, but will not justify the depriving them of their lives or freedom. In other words, that it will warrant all such measures as must be inefficacious, but will not warrant such as might, perhaps, be effectual. I should be glad to see this distinction established, as the apprehensions of the Dissenters would be greatly diminished, if they were satisfied that there is a boundary which persecution on that principle can never pass. Vain, however, is the wish; fruitless the hope; for what limits can be assigned to the operation of a principle, the very existence of which is an outrage to justice, and a proof of the weakness of her laws. Shall we appeal to the objects of government for the extent to which penalties on religious belief may be carried? Alas, Sir, the very existence of this object is endangered from the moment that such penalties are permitted at all. Government was established for the protection of the rights of property, of freedom, and of life; but if the legislature has a right to judge of the tendencies of thoughts abstractedly from conduct, and to establish a standard of human guilt independently of human actions, that protection is at once annihilated; for it is obvious, that if the legislature has a right to judge of the mere operations of the mind, it has the means of consigning to condemnation whatever religious opinions they please, and therefore of marking for destruction, whatever religious sects they choose. It is a privilege that destroys the firmest bond, and strongest principle of union, that is known to civil society—the assurance that the guiltless shall not be condemned—that the innocent shall not be punished. It takes away from the subject the blessing of security, without which, all other blessings are but motives to disquietude, and incitements to distress.

The Right Hon. Gentleman's next declaration was, that the Dissenters already enjoy a sufficient and complete toleration. Sir, it is the severest affliction of which the Dissenters complain, that while, in order to enjoy that right of private belief, which is essential to thought, and therefore inseparable from existence, they are reduced to a situation which the House of Peers (so much did they differ from the Right Hon. Gentleman) have solemnly pronounced to be one of the most unhappy to which Englishmen can be reduced, they are considered by their fellow-subjects.

are enjoying a sufficient and ample toleration. "You ask from the Legislature the free exercise of private judgment in questions of religion. You claim the right of acceding to those laws, by which the Almighty governs conviction,—a right which, if it were in your inclination, it is not in your power to resign; yet that very right you shall enjoy on no other condition than that of being excluded from all the offices and honors of the state, of being denied the common privilege of bearing arms, and of being involved in penalties which the House of Peers, the most solemn tribunal now existing on earth, have declared never, except for offences the most enormous, ought to be inflicted. Yet this toleration shall be held to be sufficient and complete. Have your fellow citizens raised you to the seat of Magistracy, as a man whose integrity and talents invite the confidence of the innocent, and appal the hopes of the guilty? Have they entrusted you with the management of their affairs, as a person whose probity they have often tried, and whose judgment they have repeatedly proved? That toleration which is granted, shall depose you from your office as a man unworthy of all trust; for whose conduct the strongest oaths are a weak and insufficient security. Yet your fellow-citizens shall exult in the liberality of the indulgence which they have extended to your character and religious opinions. The very privileges which you derive from your benevolence to the poor, this complete and sufficient toleration shall wrest from your hands. Have you endowed an hospital, and obtained a charter for its establishment? all share in the management of its funds which you yourself have created, all means of conducting to its appropriated ends the money which you yourself have given, shall be taken entirely away. You shall not be governor of your own charity, nor a director of your own institution; yet the toleration which deprives you of all these rights, shall be deemed sufficient and complete." Mr. Beaufoy observed, that he was perfectly aware that the Right Hon. Gentleman had endeavored to shew, that the exclusion of unqualified persons to vote at elections, might, with as much reason, be considered as a penalty, as the exclusion of the Dissenters from the various capacities which their fellow-citizens enjoy: but to this he replied, that a disqualification to vote at elections, where the legal requisite is wanting, has never yet been employed as a common penalty for offences; whereas the disabilities imposed upon the Dissenters

are penalties, familiar to the law, and expressly enjoined by the Legislature, as a punishment of crimes, the most abhorrent to the peace and well being of social life. He said, he was also aware that the Right Hon. Gentleman had stated, that the Dissenters themselves did not consider the existence of the sacramental laws, as being in any considerable degree a practical grievance; an opinion that could only be founded on his not having distinguished between the interest of the Dissenters as composing a religious sect—(an interest that they well knew must flourish in proportion as their prosecution was severe) and the feelings of the same Dissenters, as Englishmen, dishonoured in the eyes of their countrymen, degraded in their privileges as citizens, and deprived of their rights as men.—Feelings which had often led them to complain in the emphatic language of the House of Peers, "that to a more miserable situation than that in which they are placed, it is scarcely possible for an Englishman to be reduced." The Right Hon. Gentleman had remarked, that weak, defenceless, and unhappy, would be the situation of the Church, if the sacramental laws should be repealed; but much more unhappy, said Mr. Beaufoy, in my opinion, will continue to be her situation, if these laws should be permitted to remain in force; for while she is made the instrument of imposing penalties on the guiltless, of excluding from the service of their Sovereign a large proportion of the most faithful and affectionate of his subjects, and of reducing to the harsh alternative of apostacy from religion (for so if the laws were executed, it must actually prove) or of exclusion from all offices and honor, one of the two nations which compose Great Britain, she is at the same time reduced to the shame of prostituting for these lamentable purposes, the most sacred ordinance of her faith; an ordinance of more than mortal institution; the solemn pledge of her eternal hope; and she is likewise exposed to the disgrace of seeing her Ministers compelled to the fearful alternative of trespassing on the laws, or of trampling on their duty, of exposing themselves to prosecution, to penalties, and finally, perhaps, to a prison; or of administering the awful Sacrament to those on whom they are assured of a sentence of everlasting misery. The history of nations furnishes no example of indignity like this, being offered by any Legislature to the religion of a people. That foreign invaders should pollute the temple of a worship which they do not believe in, may perhaps be natural; yet even this is always recorded with horror; but that the Legislature of a country should deliberately, and by express enactment, prostitute the sacred rights, and solemn ordinances

ordinances of their own faith, that they should depoil the Temple of its customary reverence, and convert it into an anti-chamber to the Excise Office; that they should strip the altar of its purity, and make it a qualification-deik for tax-gatherers and public extortioners, and that the interest of the church should be pleaded as a reason for this impious defilement, contains in it such a novelty of horror, such stupendous profanation, as never in any other instance has stained the annals of mankind. What, upon such a conduct must be the impartial decision of succeeding times? There are persons in this Assembly, nor is their number small, whose names cannot perish with the age which gave them birth; to them, at least, it is of moment to consider what will be the judgment of that tribunal of posterity, whose final decision no passion can disturb, no fears can terrify, no hopes can seduce. To their unerring wisdom shall we plead that the Sacramental Laws are essential to the support of an established Church? The experience of Ireland falsifies that plea; or shall we say that in common policy a religious Test is essential to the maintenance of civil institution? The experience of all Europe refutes the extravagant assertion: or shall we insult their patience by assuming to ourselves the attributes of Deity, and pretending a right to judge of the guilt or innocence of human thoughts independently of human actions? For the credit of the present age I shall be sorry that such principles shall be recorded, and I know not of any other on which the Sacramental Laws can be defended. Before I conclude, it gives me much satisfaction to observe, that the Right Hon. Gentleman has neither denied, nor contradicted any one of the facts, on which the claim of the Dissenters, to the solicited relief, is built. They assert, that their ancestors were not persons against whom the provisions of the Test Act were originally framed, and that they were not included in the reason, though unhappily they were subjected to the burden of the laws. The Right Hon. Gentleman does not pretend, in opposition to the title and preamble of the act, as well as to all historic records, that the exclusion of the Dissenters from Civil and Military Offices was the purpose for which that act was designed. The Dissenters also alledge, that the Test Act was passed under an implied but strong and equitable pledge that relief from its restrictions should be given to the Dissenters. A pledge which the Parliament who passed that act, though their efforts were defeated by the act of the Court, repeatedly endeavoured to redeem. This fact also the Right Hon. Gentleman does not attempt to dispute. The Dissenters further maintain, that the Corporation Act was

passed in a season of turbulence and national distress: that its provisions were not more hostile to the Dissenters than to the Constitution itself, and that the reasons on which the act was founded have long since ceased to operate. This fact also the Right Hon. Gentleman has not attempted to disprove. Thus, Sir, I have endeavoured to shew, that the facts on which the Dissenters have built their claim are unrefuted and unquestioned, and that the arguments which they have advanced, are opposed on such principles alone, as would justify, and have often produced, the worst extreme of persecution. In all that I have said, I have submitted to the judgment of the House those considerations alone which have governed my own conviction; for as a friend to justice, I wish relief to the injured; as a citizen devoted to the State, I am anxious to unite in the general defence all those who are willing to hazard their lives for the general safety; and as a member of the Church of England, I am solicitous to relieve her from reproach, perfectly convinced that she must be weakened in proportion as she is dishonoured, and that her permanent prosperity can never be derived from power founded on oppression.

Mr. Poyas rose and expressed his astonishment at the extraordinary demand, not request, made this night to the House. He remarked that it was not for his consideration at present what was, or was not, the cause for making those acts; whether violence instituted them, and prejudice continued them; but he thought it would be torpidity and supineness in the extreme to repeat them now, or at any period. As long as there were Dissenters let there be Test Acts.

Mr. Burke spoke strongly against the Repeal; and concluded his speech by saying, that he was an enemy to the Test as it now was, for he thought it insufficient to the end, and he conceived that the Sacramental Rite ought not to be prostituted. Conscience, where it really existed, ought not to be wounded. By hurting a man's conscience, we in truth annihilated the God within him, and violated him in his sanctuary. He was for granting to all men relief from oppression, but to none power, which he believed they were disposed to abuse.

Mr. Smyth, Sir William Dolben, Mr. Wyndham, and several other Members spoke; after which the House divided, when there appeared

Against the Motion,	—	294
For it,	—	105
Majority		189

THURSDAY, March 4.

A petition was presented from the Duke of Athol, setting forth the circumstances under which the sovereignty of the Isle of Man had been ceded to the Crown, and praying leave to bring in a bill for appointing Commissioners to enquire what rights, ceded with the sovereignty, might be restored without prejudice to the object (the prevention of smuggling), which the Crown had in view in obtaining it. Ordered to lie on the table.

Mr. Flood rose to state his proposition for a Reform of the Representation of the People; and after mentioning the difficulties attending it, and apologizing for attempting what the Chancellor of the Exchequer had failed in, he assumed as a principle that the House of Commons was not an adequate representation of the people: Having enlarged some time on this point, and endeavoured to shew what inconveniences arose from the present mode, he came to state the remedy which he meant to propose, and in which, he said, he had tried to avoid the objections made to those proposed by others. After recapitulating these objections, he said there were only two ways of obtaining any degree of reform, viz. laying open the boroughs, or adding to the representation of the counties. Being wedded to no system, he was ready to adopt that which was least likely to excite opposition. It was also indifferent to him whether he proceeded by moving for a Committee to consider of the state of the representation, or for leave to bring in a bill. The Chancellor of the Exchequer had tried the former, and failed. If it should be objected to now, he should adopt the latter. If the counties, cities, and boroughs were suffered to remain in their present state, an addition must be made to the number of Members that would introduce a new body of constituents to the benefits of representation. It was easy to say, "Things were very well as they are."—That might have been said of every constitution the day before its fall. He, therefore, proposed to add one hundred Members to the present number, to be chosen by the resident house-keepers throughout the kingdom. These were a respectable class of people in all countries; and as every man in England was computed to pay taxes to the amount of fifty shillings annually, housekeepers paying for themselves and families must be considered as possessing no inconsiderable share of property. He observed, that Peers, possessing boroughs, had an influence in the House of Commons, which it was necessary to counteract. The influence of the Crown, in the opinion of Blackstone and Hume, in the opinion of the House of

Commons, had increased since the Revolution. A bill of reform had been passed in consequence of the opinion declared by the House of Commons: but he might safely affirm that the Crown had since gained more by the patronage of the East Indies than it had lost by that reform. If the Crown and the House of Lords should ever come to return a majority in the House of Commons, what must be the consequence? The people deserved well of the Crown, for they had shewn themselves warmly attached to the Sovereign. They deserved well of the government, for they bore many taxes without murmuring. Every privilege, therefore, which could be granted, ought to be granted to them. It was hard, that of late their taxes had been increased, but their privileges diminished. He proposed, should he succeed in his motion, to introduce a clause for more frequent elections; and concluded with moving for leave to bring in a bill for the purpose stated in his speech.

Mr. Wyndham next rose, and declared it as his opinion, that before the Honourable Mover could expect the adoption of his Reform by that House, he must state the specific grievance that existed, as a necessary preliminary to the application of a remedy. True wisdom consisted in a proper adoption of the means to the end; and every season was not equally proper for doing that which was proper.

Even if the representation required amendment, the present was certainly not the season for it, when men's minds were let loose in a wild spirit of theory and innovation, but was rather like repairing a house in a hurricane season. These theoretical notions he had hoped were quite extinct; but he found, to adopt an expression which had the other day been made use of, they were not dead, but sleeping. The heat of the times had again generated this pestilential swarm to buzz about and annoy us, which he ardently wished to see precipitated into the flames, or swept into the kennel, or immediately devoted to any other vehicle of destruction. The Hon. Mover's objection to our system of representation, at the same time that he did not mention any actual evil as proceeding from it, reminded him of a hypochondriac, of whom he had read, who having perused many books upon medicine, and compared the disorders described with his own imaginary malady, confessed that he possessed every symptom of the gout, except pain.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer paid a handsome compliment to Mr. Flood on his motion for a Reform; the plan was as replete with as deep political wisdom as had ever been proposed within the walls of that House. But however he might ac-

cede

reds to the propriety of the plan itself, he had strong objections to its being brought forward at this particular period; and concluded with moving an adjournment of the House.

Mr. Fox wished the Honourable Gentleman to withdraw his motion, not on account of any reference to the affairs of France, but lest the decision to be expected on it should convey to the people an idea that a Reform of the Representation was

less warmly supported in that House than it had been. He approved of the general outline of the plan, as the representation of housekeepers came as near as could be to a representation both of persons and property.

Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Burke, Mr. Courtenay, and several other Members having spoken, the question was put, and the motion for adjourning was carried without a division.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Lisbon, Jan. 17.

THEY write from Alcobaca, that on the 17th of November in the morning they heard, in the hamlet of St. Gideon, near Pederneira, a noise proceeding from the sea-coast, which led them to imagine that some large fish had got on shore, and on their arrival at the place they actually found a whale, which was three fathoms long, and five quarters and a half in thickness; the skin of it was black on the back, and white under the belly, but had no fins; in the upper part of the head, above the eyes, were a square hole, and two other small openings; its muzzle was pointed and pretty large, and was furnished with 44 large teeth separated from each other; above the back bone, and towards the sides, where there should have been fins, there were thick rough membranes. This whale was taken and brought to St. Gideon, where it lived two days; when dissected the flesh was found very white. Numbers of people flocked to view it, but none could describe the species of this fish, and the fishermen of Pederneira declared they never saw one of the kind.

Malaga, Jan. 23. During the year 1789 there entered this port 2008 vessels, 37 of which were ships of war, viz. 1508 Spanish merchantmen and nine men of war, 120 French merchantmen and four men of war, 210 English, of which seven were men of war, two from the States of Malta, 17 Portuguese, six Swedish, 60 Danish, 43 Dutch merchantmen and 10 men of war, four Venetian, three Genoese, six Ragusan, three Sardinian, and three from the United States of America.

Toulouse, Feb. 10. On the 4th inst. a band of robbers, to the number of 500, repaired in a body to the Castle of Camparnaw, in order to pillage and set fire to it. The Lord of the Castle having got notice of their approach, dispatched a courier to request immediate assistance of the National Militia of Montauban, and went in person to Moissac for further aid. Mr. Duprat, the Mayor of the new Municipality of Montauban, having assembled 250 national volunteers, and a company of the

regiment of Languedoc, he put himself at their head, and set out in quest of the robbers. He was joined by the detachment from Montauban some minutes before he arrived at Camparnaw; and having made a spirited attack upon the robbers, he killed 76, and committed above 60 to the prisons of Montauban and Moissac. Several of the officers and soldiers of the united corps were dangerously wounded; among whom is Mr. Duprat, the Mayor; and Mr. Tieuzal, an officer of the militia of Moissac, was unfortunately killed.

Vienna, Feb. 13. Some alarming symptoms, which attended the Emperor's illness within these two days, induced his Imperial Majesty to receive the sacrament in the royal apartments this morning, at which ceremony the principal officers of the Court, together with a considerable number of the Nobility of both sexes assisted.

Vienna, Feb. 20. His Imperial Majesty, the Emperor Joseph the Second, expired between five and six this morning.

And on Thursday morning last died her Royal Highness the Arch-Duchess Elizabeth, after having been delivered of a daughter, who is still alive.

The Great Duke of Tuscany (now King of Hungary and Bohemia) is expected here in a day or two.

Vienna, Feb. 24. On the evening of Monday last the remains of the deceased Emperor were interred in the same vault, in the Capuchin convent of this city, where his parents were buried.

The general mourning began the same day, and is to last for six months.

The new born daughter of the Arch-Duke gains strength daily.

The Crown of Hungary was sent off from hence to Buda on Thursday last, and was received, at various stages on the road, with the greatest demonstrations of national exultation.

COUNTRY NEWS.

Cambridge, March 3. The two gold medals of fifteen guineas each, given annually

ally by his Grace the Duke of Grafton, Chancellor of this University, for the encouragement of classical learning, were this day adjudged to Mr. Francis Wrangham, of Trinity Hall, and Mr. John Tweddell, of Trinity College, junior, Bachelors of arts.

York, March 15. On Wednesday last, at intervals, the inhabitants of Sheffield were visited in a very unusual manner by three of the elements. During the greatest part of the forenoon there fell immense quantities of hail and snow, intermixed with rain; these showers were succeeded by a very high wind; and the elemental warfare was closed by a vivid flash of lightning, accompanied with a clap of thunder remarkably loud and awful.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

February 25. Tuesday night a Council, consisting of the gentlemen undernamed, assembled in the Chamber at the Royal Academy.

Sir W. Chambers, Mr. Hamilton,
Mr. Bacon, Mr. Barry,
Mr. P. Sandby, Mr. Serres,
Mr. Cofway, Mr. Ruffel.
Mr. Richards, Secretary.

The subject of their deliberations was the intimated resignation of Sir Joshua Reynolds of the office of President of that institution.

A letter from Sir Joshua to Mr. Richards was read, declaring his resolution to resign the Presidency of the Academy:—a letter from Sir William Chambers to Sir Joshua, was also read—this was addressed to Sir Joshua, in consequence of Sir William's interview with the King, in an early stage of this business: and among other flattering marks of the Sovereign's favour, the letter expressed, "that his Majesty would be happy in Sir Joshua's continuing in the President's Chair."

Sir Joshua's letter to Sir William Chambers, in reply, stated in effect—"That he inferred his conduct must have been hitherto satisfactory to his Majesty, from the very gratifying way in which his Royal Pleasure had been declared; and if any inducement could make him depart from his original resolution, the will of his Sovereign would prevail; but that, flattered by his Majesty's approval to the last, there could be nothing that was not perfectly honourable in his resignation; and that, in addition to this determination, as he could not consistently hold the subordinate distinction of Royal Academician, after he had so long possessed the Chair, he begged also to relinquish that honour."

All idea of soothing Sir Joshua, by any proceeding of the Academy, from the Sovereign's wishes having been of no avail, was rejected as superfluous and inconsistent. Every gentleman present regretted this calamity to the institution; Sir William Chambers expressed himself with particular feeling; and it is to that gentleman's praise, that his correspondence on the subject, contained the most elegant reasoning. In this situation of affairs, it was resolved that a general meeting of the Royal Academicians be called on Wednesday next; when these proceedings will be laid before them, and measures adopted relative to the choice of a new President.

February 27. A very handsome piece of plate, some time since voted by the Citizens of Glasgow to Mr. Palmer, was sent up to London a few days ago. It is greatly admired for the elegant taste of the design; and the following is a copy of the inscription it bears:

To
JOHN PALMER, Esq.
Surveyor and Comptroller General
of the Posts of Great Britain,
From
The Chamber of Commerce
and Manufactures
in the City of Glasgow,
as an acknowledgment
of the Benefits
resulting from his Plan
To the
Trade and Commerce
of this Country.
1789.

March 2. Yesterday morning James Cannon, a native of the Isle of Man, was apprehended for stealing the colours of the first regiment of guards, from St. James's. He was taken to Bow-street, and underwent an examination; where he seemed to betray symptoms of insanity: and on being further interrogated, said, there were traitors in England, by some of whom he had been employed, and that to-morrow he would discover those who had put him on.

March 6. Yesterday a man genteelly dressed was taken out of the river at Palace yard steps, above Westminster Bridge; on being searched, nothing was found in his pockets except a key, a cork-ferew, and two bad halfpence; a watch chain was sewed to the fob of his breeches, and he had all the appearance of a Frenchman; but as there was nothing about him to discover who he was, he was carried to St. Margaret's bone house to be owned.

March 9. Monday the Medical Society of London held their anniversary meeting at their house in Bolt-court, Fleet-street, when the President, Dr. James Sims, presented the gold medal, called the Fother-

thergillian medal, to Dr. Robert Willan, for the best Dissertation on Cutaneous Diseases, in answer to the prize question for the present year. The silver medal, annually given for the best Essay written by a Fellow of the Society, was presented to Mr. John Haighton, Surgeon, for his paper on Original Deafness, and various other ingenious communications. The other silver medal annually awarded to any person, not a Fellow of the Society, for the best communication, was adjudged to Dr. Caleb Hillier Parry, of Bath, for his paper on the removal of certain Diseases of the Head by compression of the Carotid Arteries.

March 11. A new Settlement near Cape Mezurada, on the coast of Africa, has been projected by the Members of the New Jerusalem Churches in this country, and Sweden, Prussia and America; the funds for which are said to be in great forwardness. The settlers are to embark from here as soon as ever they amount to a hundred families. It is to be a free community, and entirely independent of all European laws, &c. though they mean to request the protection of Great Britain. A code of laws adapted to the state of the Community is to be framed by persons chosen out of the whole, as soon as it is in such forwardness as to admit thereof. As it is, every person of property that has engaged in the undertaking agrees to purchase none of the inhabitants as slaves, but to promote their civilization by educating their children, taking them as apprentices, regular marriages, &c. The undertaking has been as much instigated by the kindness of the natives to some of this Community, as the goodness of the soil, which produces spontaneously the sugar-cane, cotton and indigo. Ivory of the best quality is also found there; and it appears that the disposition of the natives has been hitherto much misrepresented both by Portuguese, English, and Dutch; and that they behaved very coolly to the English till the late voyages of these Missionaries were undertaken.

March 13. On Saturday last an inquisition was taken by the Coroner for the city of London, at the Sun on Addle-Hill, Upper Thames-street, on the body of Mary Page, an infant of the age of seventeen months, who was intrusted by its father (a Journeyman Printer) to the care of Lucy Acres to be nursed. This woman had for about three months the care of the child, during the whole of which time she had deposited it in a drawer in the room in which she lived; from whence it was never taken, till the officers of the parish of St. Andrew by the Wardrobe found it in a most wretched condition—immersed as it were in its own filth, languishing for want of food,

almost devoured by vermin, and without any other cloathing, than a piece of a shirt wrapt round its body, as it lay on a pillow in the drawer above-mentioned, and an old pair of breeches thrown over it.—It was proved that this inhuman monster of a nurse had frequently been out from eleven o'clock in the forenoon till five o'clock the next morning, during which time her constant practice was to lock her room, and leave the child in it unattended; and that from such neglect, together with a want of due attention to cleanliness, the death of the child was accelerated.—These facts induced the Jury to find a verdict of wilful murder against the said Lucy Acres; and she is now confined in the Poultry Compter, to take her trial at the next Sessions at the Old Bailey.

March 16. A general meeting of the Royal Academicians was held on Saturday evening at Somerset-house; when, after agitating the unpleasant difference between the President and the Academy with as much delicacy as possible, it was determined that a delegation, consisting of Messrs. West, Faringdon, Colway, Catton, Bacon, Copley, Barry, and Rigaud, should wait upon Sir Joshua, and lay before him the resolution the Academy had come to, in order to produce a conciliatory effect. The resolution was in substance as follows: "That it appeared, when the drawings of Mr. Bonomi were introduced at the late election, Sir Joshua, by whose directions they were brought in, had certainly acted in conformity to the intentions of the Council, as appeared by an order entered on their books; but that such order not going through the regular forms necessary to constitute a law, the full body of the Academicians remained ignorant of the proceeding; and therefore fell into an error, in ordering the drawings to be removed. But as they unanimously professed that no disrespect was intended towards Sir Joshua, they trusted he would be prevailed upon to comply with the wishes of the King, and continue in the Presidency of the Academy." The gentlemen empowered to wait upon Sir Joshua, attended him yesterday; and Sir Joshua received them very politely. After some conversation on the subject, he agreed to resume the abdicated chair this evening, and to continue to exercise as usual the functions of President: a circumstance highly grateful to every judge and admirer of painting.

B I R T H.

February 27. Last week the lady of — Crooke, Esq. was safely delivered of a son in Wigmore-street.

M A R-

M A R R I E D.

Feb. 27. On Wednesday, at St. George's, Hanover-square, Henry Otway, Esq. son of Cooke Otway, Esq. of Castle Otway, in the kingdom of Ireland, to Miss Cave, sister of Sir Thomas Cave, Bart. of Stamford-Halein, Leicestershire.

Thursday, at Hackney church, Mr William M'Dowal Robinson, of the Royal Navy, to Miss Bowthead, of Upper Hmerton.

Saturday, at Edinburgh, Miles Sandys, Esq. of Graythwaite-hall, in the county of Lancaster, to Miss Dalrymple, eldest daughter of Sir John Dalrymple Hamilton Macgill, Bart. of Cowland, one of the Barons of his Majesty's Court of Exchequer of Scotland.

March 6. Yesterday evening, by special licence, at Lady Hales's, in Cavendish-square, John Calcraft, Esq. Member for Wareham, to Miss Elizabeth Hales, third daughter of the late Sir Thomas Pym Hales, Bart. The ceremony was performed by the Bishop of Bath and Wells.

On Tuesday last, at Tilehurst church, Charles Blagrove, Esq. of Calcott-place, late from the Island of Jamaica, to Miss Hill, daughter of the late James Hill, Esq. of Prospect-place, near Reading, Berks.

13. At Widley, Captain Purvis, of the Royal Navy, to Miss Garrett, daughter of Daniel Garrett, Esq. of Portsmouth.

18. Yesterday, at Marybone church, by the Lord Bishop of Bristol, the Rev. Nicholas Isaac Hill, Student of Christ Church, Oxford, to Miss Gibson, eldest daughter of the Rev. Edmund Gibson, Rector of St. Bennet's, Paul's wharf.

On Tuesday last, at Edinburgh, Lieutenant Trail, of the 76th regiment, to Miss Sibilla Sutherland, daughter of the deceased Mr. Hugh Sutherland, late Minister of Birley and Hurray.

20. Yesterday, at St. George's, Hanover-square, Robert Adamson, Esq. of Lower Grosvenor-street, to Miss Bruce, of the same street.

On Wednesday last, by a special licence, John Gore, Esq. to Miss Draper, only daughter of the late General Sir William Draper.

D E A T H S.

Feb. 25. Tuesday, in Christ's Hospital, Mrs. Norris, wife of Mr. Norris, Surveyor to that Hospital.

On Thursday the 11th inst. at Ashburton, Devon. Mrs. Palk, lately returned from the East-Indies.

Lately, at Donocmore, in Ireland, Edward Menemon, aged 119 years.

On Tuesday, at Woolwich, Neil Campbell, Esq. Clerk of the Survey in his Majesty's warren.

27. On Wednesday, at Paddington-

green, Mr. Henry Sevecke, in the 82d year of his age.

Monday last, aged 22, Mrs. Le Mesurier, wife of Mr. Le Mesurier, surgeon, of Greek-street, Soho.

Last week, the Rev. Richard Bisse Riland, Rector of Sutton Coldfield, Chaplain to the Bishop of London, and a Justice of the Peace for the county of Warwick.

Thursday, at his house in Grosvenor-street, Daniel Minet, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S.

Lately, at his house in Cold-Bath-fields, Mr. Kinnerley, aged 81. He acquired an independence at Halifax, in Nova Scotia, being one of the first settlers; he had retired for a number of years past, and was remarkable for constantly walking to Highgate in a morning gown. As he was of the Romish communion, he was so intimidated by the riots in 1780, that he has never since been abroad; but had two rooms thrown into one, which he walked up and down four hours every morning till within a month of his decease. He has left considerable property to charitable foundations, and among indigent individuals; a person who had lost his sight and asked charity, a man servant, and another, who served him with fish, are to have two shillings and sixpence per week, and other donations at Christmas, during their lives.

March 2. John Howard, Esq. This excellent man paid the debt of nature on the 20th of January, at Chertson, after an illness of twelve days. His disorder was a violent fever caught at the hospital of that place, where he had been administering medicine to many poor wretches who languished under the same malady.

On Friday last, at Tendring-hall, Suffolk, Admiral Sir Joshua Rowley, Bart. The title descends to his eldest son, now Sir William Rowley, late a Captain in the Guards.

Thursday last, at Kendal, Dr. Ainslie, many years physician of that place.

9. On Wednesday, at Lynchem-house, near Wotton-Basset, the Right Hon. Lady Viscountess Chetwynd. She was the youngest daughter of the late Sir Jonathan Cope, Bart. of Brewern, in Oxfordshire, and in 1751, was married to the present Lord Viscount Chetwynd.

On Thursday, near Pile, in Glamorganshire, Mrs. Taylor, wife of Lieutenant General Taylor, and sister to Richard Middleton, Esq. of Chirk-Castle, Denbighshire.

On Tuesday, the 2d current, at Edinburgh, Lieutenant Colonel Francis Sutherland, in the 76th year of his age, near sixty years of which were spent in a military life, first in the British army, and

and after in the Scots Brigade, in the service of the States of Holland.

19. Friday, in Portman-street, aged 88, the Rev. Thomas Osborn, LL. D. Rector of Clifton and Campton, in Bedfordshire, and a Prebend of the Collegiate churches of Salisbury and Lincoln, the youngest son of the late Sir John Osborn, Bart. of Chicklands Priory, Bedfordshire, and great uncle to the present Sir George Osborn, Bart.

Friday evening, far advanced in years, the Rev. Mr. Baker, Vicar of West Hendred, Berks, and formerly Fellow of Corpus Christi College.

Saturday, after a lingering illness, at her seat at Knebworth, Herts, Mrs. Lytton, relict of John Robinson Lytton, Esq. of the same place.

Saturday night, at Dagnam Park, in the 11th year of his age, Master Henry Neave, youngest son of Richard Neave, Esq.

At Leigh, in Lancashire, lately, Jane Monk, at the age of 104.

18. On Thursday, in Gower-street, Bedford-square, Lieutenant-General Lang, lately returned from the East-Indies, where he had resided upwards of 33 years.

On the 4th inst. at Gildow, in the parish of Kelton, Scotland, the Rev. Dr. William Jamieson, aged 86, Minister of Rerwick.

On the 2d inst. at Lismore, in Ireland, in the 80th year of his age, the Rev. Henry Gervais, LL. D. Archdeacon of Cashel.

On the 8th inst. at Bath, Sir John Coghill, Bart. of Coghill-hall, Yorkshire.

The 9th inst. at Kingbridge, Devon. in the 79th year of her age, Mrs. Ilbert, relict of William Ilbert, Esq. of Bowring-leigh, and great aunt to Lord Viscount Courtenay.

20. Thursday morning, of the gout in his stomach, at his house on the Terrace, Green-street, Kentish-Town, John Cates, Esq.

On Saturday, at Glasgow, in the 31st year of his age, Mr. William Hamilton, Professor of Anatomy and Botany in the University of Glasgow.

On the 3d inst. at Caldwell, Captain Alexander Mure, late of the 19th regiment of foot.

On Wednesday last, at St. Lawrence, near Canterbury, Mr. Clement Graham, second son of Colonel Graham.

23. On Saturday last, Mr. Samuel Townley, hop-merchant, and one of the Common Councilmen of Tower Ward.

Last Thursday, at his apartments in the Temple, Mr. J. Mc'Donnell.

Lately, Mr. Mathew Newsham, of Rippon Common.

A few days since, at Bevington-bush, Mr. Bryan Blundell, formerly a considerable merchant in Liverpool.

Sunday, at Reading, in Berkshire, Dr. Addington, father to the Speaker of the House of Commons.

Friday last, Mrs. Manby, wife of William Manby, Esq. Stratford-grove, Essex.

At Aberdeen, the 13th inst. in the 75th year of her age, the Hon. Sophia Forbes, daughter to the late James Lord Forbes, and widow of Charles Cumine, Esq. of Kininmouth.

25. On Thursday last, near Paddington, in the 88th year of her age, Mrs. Vander Gucht, relict of the late Gerard Vander Gucht, Esq. It deserves to be recorded, that this valuable lady had thirty children by her late and only husband; and that, except for a few months before her dissolution, she had never experienced any severe or alarming illness.

Tuesday last, after a short illness, Mrs. Brockhurst, of Southampton-street, Bloomsbury.

Last week, at his daughter's, in East-Smithfield, in the 91st year of his age, John Tustian, Cabinet-maker, one of the oldest men belonging to the people called Quakers. His death was occasioned by being shoved down by a carriage in Cheap-side, about nine days before: he never kept his bed through sickness one day before this happened.

Sunday, Dr. Minter Wesler, aged 73 years, fifty of which he had been a Surgeon in the Royal Navy.

At Aberdeen, on Friday the 12th current, Mr. Alexander Innes, Commissary Clerk of Aberdeen.

BANKRUPTS.

Thomas Gill, of the parish of Christchurch, Surry, merchant.—John Wyne, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, hosiery.—Samuel Penrice, of Holm Cultram, Cumberland, dealer.—Richard Walford and Henry Yorke Webb, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, brewers.—Thomas Reynolds, heretofore of Tidenham, Gloucestershire, but now of Bristol, mariner.—James Lees the elder and James Lees the younger, of Oldham, Lancashire, fusian manufacturers.—William Tory, of Wimborne Minster, Dorsetshire, merchant.—James Mac Quin, of Liverpool, Lancashire, shop-keeper.—John Carrett, late of Tower-street, London, taylor.—James Smith, of Scarle-street, Lincoln's Inn-fields, Middlessex, japanner.

ERRATUM.—In the Literary Magazine for JANUARY, 1790.

Page 48, line 18, For "Hyder marched accordingly," read "The army under GENERAL STUART marched accordingly."

PRICE OF STOCKS IN MARCH, 1790.

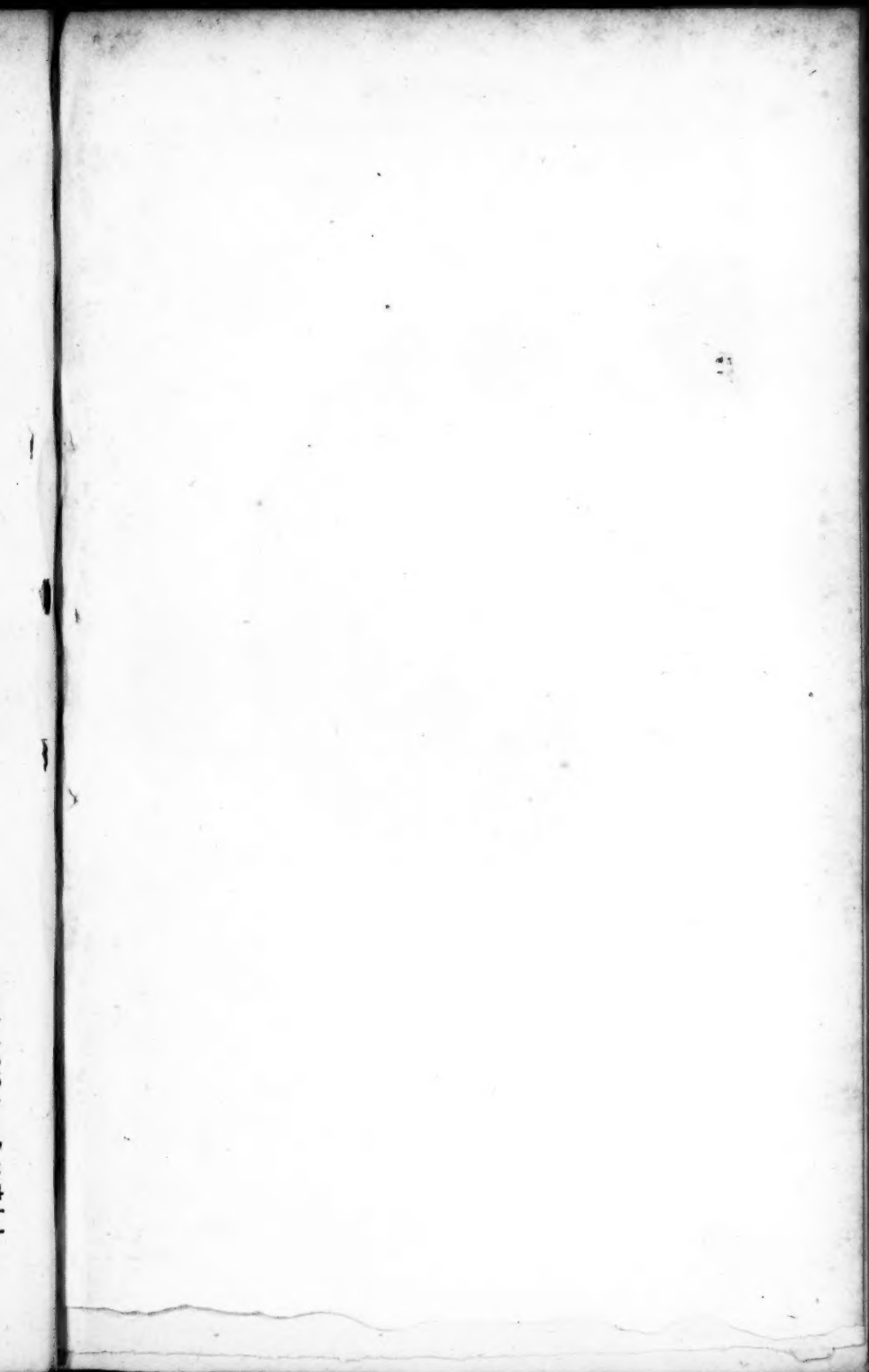
Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Ct. 13 per Ct. 14 per Ct. 15 per Ct.	Long Ann.	Short ditto.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	New 3 per Ct. 1751.	New Navy Bills	Exch. Bills	Tontine.	Lottery Tickets.
26	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	16 16
1	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	16 18
4	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	16 10
5	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	17 8
8	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	18 10
11	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	18 18
14	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	20 10
15	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	20 10
16	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	20 10
21	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	17 10
22	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	19 0
23	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	21 0
28	185 1/2	77 1/2	100 1/2	117 1/2	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	22 10

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY in LONDON, for March 1790. By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN. Height of the Barometer and Thermo- meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer.				Thermome- ter.			Weather in Mar. 1790.
	Inches, and 100th Parts.		Fahrenheit's.					
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	Noon.	11 o'Clock. Night.			
F. 25	29	97	30	9	50	54	48	Cloudy
26	29	90	29	98	50	54	44	Ditto
27	30	12	30	16	46	50	43	Fair
28	30	13	30	14	42	46	46	Cloudy
M. 1	30	19	30	24	45	51	48	Ditto
2	30	32	30	36	49	52	49	Ditto
3	30	27	30	20	47	51	41	Fair
4	30	20	30	19	39	48	38	Ditto
5	30	24	30	32	40	41	36	Ditto
6	30	34	30	33	32	42	38	Cloudy
7	30	32	30	34	38	44	40	Ditto
8	30	33	30	28	41	45	35	Ditto
9	30	14	29	84	45	51	47	Ditto
10	30	16	30	21	38	50	41	Ditto
11	30	20	30	26	50	55	46	Fair
12	30	20	30	26	50	55	50	Ditto
13	30	25	30	40	51	57	40	Change
14	30	42	30	40	36	46	41	Fair
15	30	45	30	51	36	45	38	Ditto
16	30	51	30	48	36	46	33	Ditto
17	30	50	30	47	32	45	33	Ditto
18	30	47	30	38	39	47	34	Cloudy
19	30	34	30	32	39	45	37	Fair
20	30	31	30	31	39	44	36	Ditto
21	30	27	30	16	33	42	38	Ditto
22	30	4	29	80	42	6	37	Ditto
23	29	79	29	73	42	52	39	Rain
24	29	73	29	84	48	54	44	Cloudy
25	29	93	29	96	47	53	44	Ditto
26	29	95	29	93	47	53	42	Fair
27	29	90	29	89	42	45	42	Cloudy

Corn-Exchange, London. RETURNS of CORN and GRAIN. From Mar. 8 to Mar. 13, 1790.

	Quar- ters.	Price.			Avr. Pr. per. Qr.		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Barley	7668	9603	2	1	5	0	
Beans	1556	1751	2	0	1	2	6
Malt	5716	10192	5	6	1	15	7
Oats	6149	4951	18	0	0	16	1
Peafe	775	1071	18	5	1	7	7
Rye	60	83	18	9	1	7	11
Wheat	3706	9134	13	4	2	9	4
Bigg							
Beer							



LITERARY MAGAZINE & BRITISH REVIEW.



WILL.^M HARVEY. M.D.

Pub^d as the Act directs 1. May 1790 by C. Forster N^o 41 Paultry.

LITERARY MAGAZINE,

BRITISH REVIEW.

For APRIL, 1790.

LIFE OF DOCTOR WILLIAM HARVEY.

WITH AN ENLIGHTENED HEAD.

WILLIAM HARVEY, an eminent Physician, considered illustrious, by being the first person who discovered the circulation of the blood, was the eldest son of Thomas Harvey, a gentleman who resided at Foston in Kent. At this place he was born, on the 2d of April, 1578, and at the age of ten, was put to the grammar school of Canterbury, and thence removed at fourteen, to Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, in order to be brought up to physic. Having spent two years there, in pursuing the study of that art, he went, at the age of sixteen, through France and Germany, to Italy, at which time he acquired the Italian language, and having finished his course, under the best masters, particularly the famous Hieronymus Fabricius ab Aquapendente, he was created Doctor of Physic and Surgeon, and Lecturer, in 1598.

Soon after this period he returned to England, and taking his degree as Doctor of Physic, at Cambridge, repaired to London, where he began to

practise in his profession, and soonwards married. We, however, find an account either of the name or family of his lady; but whoever she was, it seems the Doctor had no children by her, and it was probably for want of this to employ her time and attention, that she often assisted herself with a pen, remarkable for talking, the extraordinary form of which furnished her husband with the best experiments in support of his doctrine, that a female mind has the power of conceiving perfect eggs without the help of an male. The doctor's account of this event may be found in his Treatise on the Generation of Animals, written in elegant Latin, but was at least a matter that we cannot with propriety give a translation of a here.

In 1614, he was admitted a candidate of the College of Physicians, and three years after, elected fellow. In 1615, he was chosen Reader of the Anatomy and Surgery Lecture, founded by Dr. Richard Caldwell, and he

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began